The Nation.

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The Week.

THE fourth-class post-offices long ago became a national scandal of the first class. They are unprotected by any kind of civil-service law or tenure of-office act, or even traditional decency of treatment, and have long been the choicest prey of the spoilsmen. The wholesale massacre of fourth-class postmasters has come to be taken as one of the natural and necessary incidents of the passing of the Administration from one party to another, and that the heads of 50,000 petty officials in the postal service should fall has been regarded as a step as proper and inevitable as a change of Cabinet. Moreover, as Senator Lodge has said, it is not the President who appoints these officers, nor the Postmaster-General, nor even the Assistant Postmaster-General, but the Congressmen. They are the true over-lords of all the fourth-class postmasters, and the Post-office Department is simply a great machine to record and execute their wishes. It is considered one of the inalienable rights of a Congressman to have a personal dependent in every minor post-office in his district. Mr. Lodge introduced a bill to take the fourth-class offices entirely away from Congressmen, but found that he might as well have tried to abolish the salaries of Congressmen. So the irrational process has gone on from year to year, to the demoralization of the service and the disgrace of both parties and the country.

That the situation is one full of difficulties must be admitted. Clarkson made a clean sweep four years ago, and obediently filled the offices with the henchmen of Republican Congressmen. It is too great a strain on human nature to expect that all those men should be undisturbed. Doubtless many of them ought to be removed on the ground of unfitness. But what guarantee is there in the system now apparently being pursued at Washington that their successors will be any better, or that their tenure of office will be, or deserve to be, any more secure? As far as one can see, all that Assistant Postmaster-General Maxwell is doing is to collect a choice lot of victims for the Republican guillotine when it is next set up. In the proceedings up to date there is no promise of any more decency or stability than there has been in the past. But President Cleveland is in a position to secure a good degree both of decency and stability in this important part of the public business. He could have the appointments to fourth-class offices made as cautiously as to other offices, first filling vacancies and allowing removals only for cause. Then he could bring the whole matter forcibly before Congress, and call for legislation which would secure something like an equitable division of these petty offices between the parties, or provide for some non-partisan way of filling them, or relegate the whole matter to popular local elections. He owes it to himself, to his party, and to his country to take measures in some way to put an end to a practice which does so much to make the United States appear, in the words of the *Civil-Service Chronicle*, "the civic fool of the world."

The mission to England being, for reasons of all sorts—political, religious, social, commercial, and linguistic—the most important and most attractive of all our diplomatic appointments, there is always twice or three times as much public interest in the filling of it as in that of any other. Consequently there has been a general feeling of satisfaction, which—considering what strange things sometimes happen in our diplomatic service—might almost be called a feeling of relief, on hearing of Mr. Bayard's selection for the place. His professional equipment is of the very best, for, besides his long service in the Senate, he has had the benefit of four years' experience as Secretary of State, during which his management of our foreign relations was both dignified, prudent, efficient, and law-abiding, and upheld worthily the traditions of Webster, and Marcy, and Seward, and Fish, and Evarts, and Frelinghuysen. He has, too, the great advantage of being a sound lawyer, the importance of which qualification was unhappily brought out by his successor's want of it. Mr. Bayard's social equipment, which is of more importance in England than elsewhere, we need not insist on. If he is not as brilliant an after-dinner speaker as Mr. Lowell or Mr. Phelps, he has always lived in good company, and among men of education can always give a good account of himself, and in the matter of personal character, which in these days needs mention, occupies a place which never calls for explanation or apology. He, in fact, will worthily fill the place of our first Ambassador to England, even if the title possess the enormous importance which some of our jurists attribute to it.

The Chilian Mission has acquired great importance through recent events, and President Cleveland appears to have seen the need of choosing for it a man of political experience and personal standing. Ex-Gov. Porter is a great improvement over Mr. Cleveland's selection for the post eight years ago, and his appointment will be admitted, even by Republican organs, now that the campaign is over and the Irish vote hopelessly lost, to be incomparably better than Egan's. The Chilians may well be thankful to be no longer regarded by this country as just the ones to foist professional Irishmen upon. Now that they are themselves sending a minister to the United States, and are about to receive from us a man who will not need to dodge the English police on his way to their country, we may hope for a full restoration of friendly relations between the two republics.

The office of Solicitor-General is scarcely second to that of Attorney-General in importance, and the President has been as careful in filling one as the other. Mr. Maxwell not only is a man of high character, but is a lawyer of exceptional ability, so that his appointment is really an ideal one. No slight indication of this is yielded by the astonishment and pain it has caused the Ohio politicians. They had no inkling that Mr. Maxwell was even among those "prominently mentioned" for the office, and his nomination has staggered them so that they have not yet been able to claim the credit of suggesting it. They admit that he is eminently fitted for the position—they could not well do otherwise in face of the enthusiastic commendation of Mr. Maxwell by his professional brethren—yet mutely and pathetically point to the fact that, as the Washington correspondents say, he is "not known here," and is "unidentified with politics." But they ought to reflect that there is such a thing as being altogether too well known and too much identified with politics.

The stir of opposition that has been made at Vienna by the appointment of Max Judd as Consul-General of the United States at that place, has put some people in the way of thinking that foreign Governments have no right to object to our appointments to consular positions. This view is the natural outgrowth of our way of looking at the Federal offices—as the spoils of war won by the victors at the last election. If a consulship is like a bone which falls to the share of a dog, there will naturally be a disturbance if anybody interferes with the comfortable enjoyment of it. But if a consulship is a privilege extended by one country to another on certain conditions, the first of which is that the consul shall be an acceptable person, the case wears a very different aspect from that of a post-office at home, or any ordinary bone in the collection of domestic spoils. Woolsey's 'International Law' (p. 155) says:

> "Consuls, on exhibiting proof of their appointment, if *not objectionable persons*, receive an exequatur or permission to discharge their functions, within the limits prescribed."

The mere fact that an exequatur from the foreign Government is required before the

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consul can enter upon his duties, establishes the difference between this bone and the general mess. In the case of Keiley, who was appointed Minister to Austria eight years ago, we took the absurd position that the reasons for not receiving him in that capacity must be satisfactory to us. The position was untenable, and we had to abandon it. Consuls and ministers do not stand in the same category in all respects, but they are alike in the particular that both the minister and the consul must be acceptable persons to the Government to which they are accredited, and that if they are not acceptable, there can be no debate about the reasons why.

In this view, which is the only view that international law allows to be taken of the case, Austria can object to Mr. Judd as Consul-General because he is a Jew or because she does not like the way he cuts his beard. That is none of our business. The Consul General goes to Vienna to certify invoices, to take acknowledgments, and to do certain other things to promote our convenience. He exercises certain limited governmental functions which require the permission of the government of the territory, and it is quite proper, and indeed necessary, that he should be an acceptable person. We had in our early history a great deal of trouble with revolutionary France as to the character of the consuls she sent to us, and we insisted in every case on the right to reject non-acceptable persons and to revoke their exequaturs whenever they made themselves offensive. In the very nature of things, there could be no discussion of reasons, because the very reasons that made those consuls unacceptable to us commended them to their own Government. Mr. Judd, we are assured, is a gentleman of unblemished character. Nevertheless, he is a former subject of Austria, and this in itself creates a certain embarrassment. Moreover, in Austria the anti-Semitic feeling is very keen at the present time, yet there are different grades and strata of anti-Semitism. Our present Consul-General at Vienna, Mr. Goldschmidt, is a Jew, but not a Polish Jew like Mr. Judd. We do not know any difference in this country between Polish Jews and any other, but it seems that they do recognize such differences in Vienna. Hence the turmoil over the appointment of Mr. Judd. It may be that the Austrian Government will take no notice of this "row." A consul is not a diplomat. He is not received at court. He is not in society. Hence the unpopularity of Mr. Judd in Vienna may not be deemed a sufficient ground for withholding his exequatur. Nevertheless, Mr. Judd, who is a man of wealth, and of some distinction as a chess champion, could hardly wish to occupy a position where he would create ill feeling or would be subjected to coolness, if not to rudeness, during his whole term of service. The best thing for him to do under such circumstances is to resign. This he can do now without any loss of self-respect.

The position taken by Senator Hoar on the question of admitting the new Senators from Montana, Wyoming, and Washington, who have been appointed by the Governors of those States after the Legislatures had failed to elect, was considerably weakened by an admission which he felt it necessary to make in order to support his main contention. His main contention is, that the Constitution must be so construed as to keep the Senate full at all times. But the Constitution provides only for the filling of vacancies which happen "during the recess of the Legislature." When the case of Bell (Senator from New Hampshire) came up in 1879—a case similar to the ones now under consideration—Mr. Hoar held that the Governor had no power to fill a vacancy if the end of a Senatorial term had come while the Legislature was in session. But obviously the need of keeping the Senate full is just as pressing whether the vacancy occurs one day after the Legislature adjourns or one day before. So Mr. Hoar announced in the debate last Wednesday that he had changed his mind on this question. He now holds that the words "during the recess of the Legislature" are not to be taken in their strict and literal sense, but should be subjected to "a broad construction." Senator George then put to him the case of a second meeting of the Legislature and its failure to elect, and wanted to know whether it was Mr. Hoar's idea that the Governor's appointee should hold on or whether the Governor should again appoint a Senator. Mr. Hoar held that the Governor should again use the appointing power. This seemed to Senator Platt of Connecticut to be a *reductio ad absurdum*, and he announced his intention to vote in favor of the minority report. There appears to be no division on party lines in the Senate on this question.

The effort to secure the admission of any more new States having failed at the last session, there ought to be a thorough discussion of the merits of the case in regard to each of the applicants before the matter is again taken up in Congress. At the same time the question should be carefully considered of doing something to abate the present scandal of Nevada's having two Senators and one Representative, with a voting population of only about 11,000, which is steadily growing less. It is not generally known in the East that four years ago the Legislature of Nevada, in view of the declining population of that State, passed a law authorizing Congress to add to it any adjoining territory. Such action would be necessary before Congress could take any step, inasmuch as the Constitution provides that no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State, and that no State shall be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned, as well as of the Congress. When the Nevada Legislature passed this resolution, there was talk of uniting a slice of the Territory of Idaho with Nevada, but as the former has since been admitted as a State, this project is no longer feasible. But it would still be possible to unite Utah and Nevada, and thereby make a good-sized State; and when the time comes for Utah's admission, this ought to be done unless there be some reason to the contrary stronger than appears on the surface.

Kansas, which was the only Northern State that did not have a ballot-reform law on its statute books in the last election, has now enacted one, and with it also a Corrupt-Practices Act. The number of States with such ballot laws is now thirty-seven, and the number with corrupt-practices laws is now six. We have not seen the full text of the Kansas Ballot Law, but it is said to be an application of the Australian system similar to that adopted in other States. The Corrupt-Practices Act requires sworn publication, after election, by both candidates and committees, forbids specified forms of "treating," and requires that all successful candidates found guilty of violating the law shall forfeit their offices. Other violators are to be punished by fine and imprisonment. No limitation is placed to the expenditures of candidates, and the law has the defect common to all other similar American laws, save that of Missouri, just enacted, of making it nobody's duty to enforce it.

At a dinner given at Canton, Ohio, on March 29 to "boom" Gov. McKinley as a Presidential candidate, a letter was read from Senator Sherman on the silver question and on the currency question in general. The Senator, as usual, is somewhat sparing in the dissemination of the truths of finance. He gives the people no more than their stomachs will bear—indeed, rather less. He says that "the real remedy of the silver problem is to put into our silver dollar enough silver at market value to be equal to a gold dollar, and to maintain all forms of money, whether coin or notes, of equal or interchangeable value." If this had been done at the time when the so-called Sherman Law was passed, what would have happened? Silver was then worth $1.08 per ounce, and the silver dollar was worth as bullion about 84 cents. Silver is now worth about 83 cents per ounce, and the silver dollar is worth 64 cents as bullion. Consequently, if we had put enough silver into the dollar

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then to make it worth a gold dollar, it would now be 20 cents short, and the whole job would need to be done over again. In fact, it would need to be done over at least once a year. Mr. Sherman always mixes some sound doctrine with his popular fallacies. He says, for example:

"The pensions of our soldiers, the value of the savings deposits of our people, and all existing contracts would be reduced one-third in value. Gold would be demonetized, exported, and hoarded, and the basis of our entire financial system and of all values would be measured by money of less purchasing power than now, and on a footing with the financial systems of China and Japan and all the South American States, and we should be separated from the standards of universal use in the great commercial countries of the world."

All very true, but why could not Mr. Sherman go as far, at least, as he went a few months ago when he voted for the repeal of the Sherman Silver-Purchase Act? This Canton dinner was a very good place for him to tell all that he believes on the subject of the currency. The absence of any allusion to the Silver-Purchase Act might be construed to signify that he has changed his mind, but that is not probable.

An interesting problem of the year, not unconnected with the "balance of trade" question, is the effect which the World's Fair will have upon American travel in Europe. The influence of our foreign tourists, through their expenditures abroad, upon the trade debt of our country to European nations, is a factor of very considerable importance. A recent English work on international finance reproduces a few interesting statistics. When the payment of the Prussian indemnity was under discussion, M. Léon Say, reckoning up the resources of France on a balance of exchange, estimated the amount spent yearly by tourists in his country at $80,000,000. More specifically, a British Foreign Office report of 1891 on the foreign trade of Italy calculated that for the preceding ten years American tourists alone had expended in Italy an average annual sum of $35,000,000. To this must be added not only the additional outlay of our tourists in Germany, Switzerland, Great Britain, and elsewhere, but the continuous payments of the 50,000 or more native Americans resident in London, in Rome, Berlin, Paris, and other "winter cities" of the Continent. Practically all of these people, tourists and residents alike, meet their expenditures through drafts on New York bankers, and the sum total of such annual payments may safely be reckoned as in excess of $100,000,000. It is not, of course, to be expected that the attractions of the World's Fair will this year extinguish the greater part of such expenditures; but that the number of tourists from America will be materially reduced can hardly be doubted. To this extent, the "balance of trade" will clearly be affected in our favor, though we have no precedent by which to judge the full measure of its influence. The Centennial Exposition of 1876, as it happened, immediately preceded a radical change in our merchandise trade balance from the import to the export side; a change whose permanent influence far overshadowed every minor factor.

The decision of Judge Taft in the boycotting case of the Toledo and Ann Arbor Railway is apparently a new thing in the jurisprudence of the country, yet it is in line with other decisions made by the Supreme Court of the United States, and is therefore quite likely to be sustained on appeal. The fundamental principle is the same as that announced in the Chicago elevator cases, namely, that public interests are paramount, and must prevail over private interests in all cases of doubt. Probably the Inter-State Commerce Law was not framed with a view to prevent Mr. Arthur, as Chief of the Locomotive Brotherhood, from boycotting the Ann Arbor or any other railway, and thus paralyzing trade and industry in a thousand places remote from the scene of conflict, but since its terms include such cases, the courts cannot do otherwise than make practical application of them. The decision of the Court does not restrict in any way the right of railroad employees to resign their positions and to discontinue work, but it does prohibit combinations of persons from interrupting the commerce of the country by set purpose and system. There can be no doubt that such combinations do come within the prohibitions of the Inter-State Commerce Act.

The position which the Lake Shore engineers intended to take was that of refusing to haul Ann Arbor freight, while still holding their positions for other work on the road. This, the Court says, the law does not allow. Accordingly, Mr. Lennon (one man out of the five who were held to answer for contempt of court) was fined $50 and costs. The other four, who simply resigned and went out of the company's service, were discharged. Lennon made a pretence of resigning in order to escape the penalty of disobedience of the Court's order, but the proof showed that he had not resigned at that time. He expected to be protected in some way for his disobedience, and so he took the risk. A fine of $50 was a very light penalty, but was quite sufficient to advertise the purpose of the Court to enforce obedience hereafter.

The Supreme Court rendered an interesting and important decision on Monday. One Lascelles, a swindler who cut a great figure for a while as the son of Lord Beresford, was arrested in New York upon a warrant of extradition from Georgia charging him with being "a common cheat and swindler" and with "larceny after trust delegated"; but after being taken South he was again indicted, this time for forgery, tried, and convicted. His counsel insisted that he was liable to trial only for the crime charged in the warrant of extradition, and that his conviction for another offence was in violation of his constitutional rights. The Court acknowledges that a fugitive from justice in this country who is brought back from a foreign nation under a warrant of extradition can be tried here only for the crime charged in that warrant, and the contention of the swindler's counsel was that the same principle held as between the States of the Union. The case presented this point to the Supreme Court for the first time, and its decision is overwhelmingly against the claim that "the States of the Union are independent governments, having the full prerogatives and powers of nations, except what have been conferred upon the general Government, and not only have the right to grant, but do, in fact, afford, to all persons within their boundaries an asylum as broad and secure as that which independent nations extend over their citizens and inhabitants." The Court pronounces this assumption "a fallacy" which is without any support in the Constitution, and it concludes that, "upon a fugitive's surrender to the State demanding his return in pursuance of national law, he may be tried in the State to which he is returned for any other offence than that specified in the requisition for his rendition, and that in so trying him against his objection no right, privilege, or immunity secured to him by the Constitution and laws of the United States is thereby denied." The most interesting feature of this decision is the fact that it was written by Judge Jackson, the ex-Confederate Democrat from Tennessee whom President Harrison appointed to this bench just before the end of his administration.

The fall of the French Ministry on a petty amendment to the budget, after weathering for three months the fierce Panama gales, is a fresh proof of the legislative paralysis which has stricken the country, and will doubtless strengthen the demand for dissolution. There seems to be a splendid opening for a "strong man," but so far he does not appear. M. Constans has been supposed to be lying back until the right time came for him to show that he was the man for the hour, but all the announcements that he would soon appear as the expected saviour of society, have proved so premature or unfounded that the suspicion has now got abroad that he either thinks society is beyond saving, or is aware of something in his own record which an enemy might bring out in Parliament, to show that he was in need of saving along with the rest of them.

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THE POSTAL SCRAMBLE.

THE wholesale removal of fourth-class postmasters will cause great regret among those who expected a considerable improvement on the Clarkson methods when this Administration came into power. It is perhaps allowable to mention the sentimental objection to it first, although this may not be the most important. It is, then, impossible to make changes of this kind, at this rate, on the kind of information which the Department can get from any one but its own officers, without doing great injustice—that is, without ousting a great many competent postmasters guilty of no offence except that of being Republicans. This injustice has always been recognized as one of the very bad features of the spoils system, the one which is most demoralizing in its influence on the Government service. An official force, each member of which feels that no moral relation exists between him and his superiors, and that he may at any time be deprived of his livelihood without being heard in his defence, or on the *ex-parte* evidence of rivals or enemies, cannot possibly be efficient. No administration, therefore, which proposes reform of any kind can safely begin the work by doing moral wrong to a large number of people. In truth, the old system of kicking postmasters out for the simple reason that their places are needed for supporters of the party in power, has many points of superiority to the system of dismissing them on secret charges, which they have no opportunity of answering. The one is brutal, but the other is unfair and somewhat hypocritical.

It may be that two-thirds of President Harrison's appointees were unfit, but the mode of replacing them is of almost as much importance as the quality of their successors. The most discreditable and even scandalous spectacle in our politics, everybody admits, is the rush for office after the advent of a new party to power. Everybody except the office-seekers is ashamed of it. The incoming President and heads of departments all deplore it. It has been found necessary, now, to close the public offices on certain days of the week, in order to enable the chiefs to attend to the public business, so great is the horde of people who want small places, especially post-offices. President Cleveland, in spite of the warnings he has given, is beset by them almost to the extremity of endurance. But no change for the better can be looked for until some President summons up the courage, not only to reduce the number of appointments made immediately on taking office, but to stop completely the practice of wholesale removals in the first three months of his term; and the only President from whom we can look for this consummation is a President in his second term. It seems as if, in the present state of human nature, it was useless to expect it from any President in his first term.

As long as this practice is kept up, all warnings to office-seekers not to come to Washington, and all advice to them, such as Secretary Hoke Smith has given, to take up some other calling than Government service, will fall on leaden ears. In no department does it work so much mischief as in the Post-office Department, because the nerves of this Department extend all over the country and penetrate to the remotest hamlets. The Treasury or the Interior might make an absolutely clean sweep within a week without making the same impression on the office-seekers' imagination as the mere beginning of the process in the Post-office Department. As soon as—to use the figurative language of the spoilsmen—it is known that "the guillotine is set up," and "the headsman's axe has been sharpened," and "the work of decapitation has begun" in the Post-office Department in Washington, a tremor runs through the whole office-seeking world. Every village is thrown into a fever of excitement. The effect on the popular mind is much like that of the news of the opening of a public lottery. All the impression made, if any has been made, by the civil-service-reform talk in the party platform, or in the Presidential letter of acceptance, or in the campaign speeches, vanishes like a morning mist. Thousands fall to work to make "charges." Thousands more pack their gripsacks and start either for Washington or for "the home" of the Congressman for the district. The opening of the postal lottery discredits the denials made about removals in other departments. It makes people believe that vacancies could be made in the same manner elsewhere if the Administration chose. It shakes popular confidence, in the outlying districts, in the genuineness and honesty of the competitive system as administered by the Civil-Service Commission.

What, too, it may fairly be asked, is the object of this post-haste? Why make one hundred changes a day, or even fifty? What will happen to the postal service if the present incumbents stay in office even for a year? Undoubtedly the postal service has not been good during the past four years; but it has not been so bad that we cannot possibly stand it a month longer. Moreover, no service was ever improved in a hurry. Improvement means careful inquiry about the actual incumbent and about all the candidates for the place, and careful inquiry means time and pains. The guillotine is just as ineffective an instrument of administrative as of political or social reform. The craziest of the French Jacobins used to maintain that there could be no permanent purification of politics in France without the fall of 100,000 heads. Are our postal "headsmen" any less crazy?

Not the least of the objections to wholesale decapitation is, that the spectacle diminishes greatly the popular interest in the really important questions of the day. We have all been fighting a hard battle for eight years over the tariff and currency questions. We have won the victory, and, after wiping our fevered brows, have sat down to wait for currency and tariff reform at the hands of the Administration and Congress which we have elected. What do we now hear? Nothing whatever about the currency or the tariff. What do we see? The Senate fighting over its own doorkeepers, messenger-boys, and scrubbing-women; the House, which could not bear, we were told, to meet for tariff legislation, on account of the approach of the hot weather, assembling unofficially in Washington to divide offices and push "claims"; the Post-office Department rousing them to madness by the dull clang of the guillotine, and the attention of the whole country concentrated, not on the national safety, honor, and welfare, but on the distribution of some thousands of little places in which the public has no interest whatever, and the scramble for which would make even Liberians and Haytians ashamed.

AMBASSADORS.

THERE has been a good deal of discussion among us for some years past, and not a little lamentation, over the fact that the United States had no "ambassadors," that is, no officers of the first grade in the diplomatic hierarchy, to represent them at foreign courts. The complaints have mostly come from our ministers abroad, who found themselves, not exactly humiliated, but what the French called "déconsidérés," by occupying only the second rank, that of envoys extraordinary and ministers plenipotentiary. What suffering has resulted to them from this we have never been able to discover beyond the fact that if a minister plenipotentiary were waiting in the anteroom of a minister of foreign affairs for an interview, and the ambassador of another, and it might be inferior, Power came in later, the ambassador would see the Minister of Foreign Affairs first. Some have gone further than this, and averred that if a minister plenipotentiary were actually in the Foreign Minister's room and conversing with him when an ambassador was announced, the Foreign Minister would have to drop the minister plenipotentiary then and there, and give his attention to the ambassador, or, in other words, be guilty of a gross piece of rudeness.

Now, it is true that so great an authority as Prince Bismarck, in a speech before the Reichstag in 1871, did say this, when arguing for the raising of some German mission to a higher rank:

> "A minister plenipotentiary may have waited an hour in the antechamber of a minister of foreign affairs; at the moment when he is about to be admitted arrives an ambassador, and, according to the usage of most courts, as far as I know, it is the ambassador who goes in. The minister plenipotentiary has then to wait still longer, and, it may

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be, cannot be received at all on that day. From this result mortifications and annoyances which may be avoided by a simple change of title. *No minister plenipotentiary, if he has a proper sense of his own dignity, will submit to such treatment, and for my part I have found myself so placed as to be able to resist it with success*, but not without producing a coolness out of all proportion to the importance of the incident."

But we observe here two things: first, that the usage is only observed at some ("most") courts, and, secondly, that a minister who had an object in disregarding it could do so, as Bismarck did, successfully. What this means is, that the rule is one of those drawn up at the Congress of Vienna by the sovereigns who had just come out victoriously from the Napoleonic war, and had their heads so full of their importance that they soon after formed the Holy Alliance. To them, as to most sovereigns of that day, etiquette and gradations of rank and rules of precedence were among the most important things in the world, and the enforcement of them one of the chief duties of life. Hence the ambassador, as "representing the person of the sovereign," was a sacrosanct personage, who had to be taken to court in a court carriage on his presentation, and brought home in the same way under a guard of honor; who took precedence of all other diplomatic officers everywhere, had a right to personal interviews with the monarch to whom he was accredited whenever he pleased, besides many other "solemn nothings," as they have been cleverly called.

But the world has greatly changed within seventy-five years. Diplomacy, which used to consist in the messages of one sovereign to another, transmitted by functionaries who called them their "masters," or "august masters," has become quite a different thing. It has become a business which, when serious, is now generally transacted by special envoys or special negotiations. The resident diplomatic agents have greatly declined in importance, owing to the facility with which they can always communicate with their own governments, and the extreme rarity, therefore, of occasions on which they have to take any responsibility. The consequence is that the etiquette of the diplomatic business, as established by the Congress of Vienna, has fallen into considerable disuse and even into contempt. It is studied in Germany—the great home of etiquette and abstruse learning—more than anywhere else, owing in part to the large number of high mightinesses that the country contains and maintains. One of the German authors, Moser, has written a treatise on an ambassador's "Right to a Coach and Six" (*Recht mit sechs Pferden zu fahren*).

That any minister plenipotentiary need now suffer in any country the indignities of which Prince Bismarck speaks, we do not believe. That any American minister has suffered them, we shall take leave to doubt until we hear of a concrete case. As a matter of fact, a minister plenipotentiary who has anything to do, and has a fair amount of common sense, does not go and loaf in an anteroom when he wants to see the Minister of Foreign Affairs. He writes and gets an appointment, and when he has got it, if he has any self-respect, he makes the Minister of Foreign Affairs keep it. Who is the American minister who, when an ambassador came in, has arisen and sneaked out in obedience to etiquette? We have heard a good deal about the possibility of such a tragedy, but we have yet to hear the name of the victim and the time and place of its occurrence. That other right which an ambassador has—the exclusive right to claim audiences of the sovereign to whom he is accredited—has been thoroughly exploded. Whatever his rights were in the days of Louis XIV., he now has to transact business through the responsible ministers of the Crown, like everybody else.

We have no intention, however, of arguing against the introduction of the ambassadorial rank into our system. The matter has derived ridiculous importance from the opposition to it on the part of Congressmen who supposed that, by denying ourselves ambassadors, and preventing our ministers from wearing court dress, we were in some manner covering democratic institutions with glory. All this sort of controversy is as absurd as disputations over points of heraldry. We are glad to have Mr. Bayard an ambassador if it will add in the smallest degree to his comfort or importance in London. What we regret is to see such discussions concealing or turning attention away from the real improvements needed in our diplomatic service. The defect of ours is not that it has not the same strict gradations of rank, or the same rigid rules of etiquette, as that of European Powers, but that it is not a service at all in the proper sense of the term. Ambassador, envoy and minister plenipotentiary, minister resident, and chargé-d'affaires are terms which do not mean with us what they mean in Europe. In fact, with us, as terms of distinction, they mean nothing whatever. In Europe they mean what high rank in the army means—that is, the holder has been in the diplomatic business from his youth up, has had much experience in the transaction of it, is familiar with the manners, customs, constitution, history, and language of the country to which he is accredited, is acquainted more or less thoroughly with its statesmen and with his colleagues of other nations, and associates on easy and familiar terms with the ruling class, and has reached his high place through long and very meritorious service. Of course this is not true of every case, but it is true as a general rule. We need not describe the manner in which our diplomatic staff is made up every fourth year. Everybody who is familiar with it knows that there is a certain absurdity in making a fuss about the titles we use in it as long as we are so indifferent to its quality.

WHICH IS THE BARBAROUS NATION?

FIFTY years ago, the United States, by a judicious commingling of gunboats and diplomacy, was engaged in the great work of forcing China to abandon her barbarous policy of excluding foreigners. The treaty of 1844, negotiated by Caleb Cushing, was rightly hailed as marking a great triumph for civilization. Its first article proclaimed "a perfect, permanent, and universal peace and a sincere and cordial amity" between the two countries, "without exception of persons or places." At first, it is true, citizens of the United States were to have the right to enter only the five treaty ports. But this was only an entering wedge, and by the Burlingame treaty of 1868 the whole country was thrown open, on the ground of "the inherent and inalienable right of man to change his home and allegiance, and also the mutual advantage of the free migration and emigration of citizens and subjects respectively from the one country to the other for purposes of curiosity, of trade, or as permanent residents." It was this treaty, still in force nominally, which granted to "Chinese subjects visiting or residing in the United States" "the same privileges, immunities, and exemptions in respect to travel or residence as may there be enjoyed by the citizens or subjects of the most favored nation."

This country also took great pains to have the rights of its citizens in China carefully defined. They were to enjoy "all proper accommodation in obtaining houses and places of business." They were to be entitled to "the special protection of the local authorities of the Government, who shall defend them from all insult or injury of any sort on the part of the Chinese." They were to be "suffered to prosecute their commerce in quiet and without molestation or embarrassment." The two countries solemnly agreed not to "insult or oppress each other for any trifling cause," and guaranteed that the citizens of either should be exempt in the other "from all disability or persecution on account of their religious faith or worship." To have obtained such concessions from China was properly regarded as a great victory for enlightenment and civilization over barbarism, and the United States was not slow in so proclaiming it.

Out of its own mouth, therefore, is the country now condemned as barbarous, for in its dealings with China in the past few years it has gone over to those very practices which a half-century ago it was urging China to give up. If it was barbarous in China to shut out foreigners in 1840, what is it for the United States to shut them out in 1890? If no one but barbarians would persecute aliens and burn their houses and mob their p rsons, in the early years of the nineteenth century,

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what term ought to be used to describe those who do the same things in the closing years? We are even worse than the China of 1840, because we have violated our pledged word. Our own Supreme Court has decided that the Exclusion Act of 1888 was in flat violation of our treaty obligations, though it held that Congress, as the organ of a sovereign people, had a right to pass the law. In other words, a nation, like a man, had a right to declare that it would not stand by its agreements. As a crowning infamy we have passed the Geary Law, though there is reason to hope that the Supreme Court will declare this invalid, not simply because it violates our treaty obligations, but because it outrages the elementary rights of man, and breaks down the safeguards which the common law throws around every human being.

We do not mean to point out again the inhumanity of the Geary Law, or the unnecessary cruelty with which preparations are being made to enforce it. A concrete case of persecution will show how skin-deep is our civilization when it is a question of dealing with a Chinaman. The town of Great Falls, Montana, is one made up, in the main, of intelligent people, though no one could have guessed it from the treatment which befell a Chinaman there on the 23d of March. We take the account from the two daily papers of the place, one Republican and one Democratic, as it was published the next day. The *Tribune* said that there was considerable excitement in the city when "the news spread like a prairie fire" that a "pig-tailed Celestial had planted his wooden-soled shoes upon the sacred soil of Great Falls—a city where the people of his race are excluded." The rash foreigner announced that he proposed to open a laundry, and, according to the *Leader*, "appeared to be well supplied with money." He must have been intelligent, too, for he at once endeavored "to propitiate the curious and hostile bystanders by offering to treat them."

Accounts differ as to how many "accepted his hospitality," the *Tribune* saying "only a few," and the *Leader* "no one." At any rate "a meeting of the labor union" was soon held, and "the sentiments expressed were all in one strain: 'Avoiding violence, the Chinese must go.'" Violence was avoided by having a policeman arrest the Chinaman, drag him off to jail in the midst of a howling mob, and smuggle him out of town in the dead of night with orders never to show his face there again if he valued his life. In this way was settled the great truth that, as the *Tribune* put it:

> "There is no room for the almond-eyed sons of China in this city. Butte and Helena can harbor and patronize them to the exclusion of honest labor, but as long as the stars and stripes float over Great Falls no pig-tailed saffron will be allowed to call this city his home."

The *Leader* explained the proceedings as a part of a settled policy, saying:

> "There have been four or five attempts in the last few years by the Chinese to obtain a foothold in Great Falls, but the people of this city are determined to keep out the pig-tailed Celestials at any cost, and as soon as their presence here has become known, sufficient arguments and reasons have been presented to them to convince them that this city was an undesirable place of residence."

Such prejudice and cruelty, solely on the ground of a man's color or the country of his birth, the United States has denounced as barbarism on the part of China. It becomes a pertinent question, Which is really the more barbarous nation now, China or the United States?

A MISSING LINK.

"LOOK there, Alphonse," says *Punch's* Frenchman at the World's Fair of 1851, before an English washstand with all the appurtenances; "what sort of a machine do you call that?" "How droll!" answers his companion from across the Channel; "I'm sure I don't know." In some such frame of mind we can fancy our American politicians to have read a recent despatch from Berlin, saying that members of the Reichstag must forego the usual quiet of the Easter recess. "The imminence of dissolution sends most of the members to face their constituents." "To face their constituents"—how droll! Why, it was only the other day that the New Jersey Legislature adjourned and fled in terror before a mass-meeting of their constituents convened at Trenton to call them to account for their shocking race-track bill. The fugacious body has since dissolved and disappeared out of sight, and the truth is, that it will be remembered only by the blacklist which the outraged morality of the State has scattered broadcast against future political aspirations on the part of a gambling fraternity.

In this year of centennial statistics, more or less wisely gathered, it would be most instructive to have a census taken in single towns or counties, if not in a whole State, among the electors, upon this line of inquiry: Do you know the name of your Representative or Senator in the Legislature? Do you know what party he belongs to? Do you know his occupation, station in life, and previous history—in short, the facts which bear upon his fitness for the office of lawmaker? Had you any reason to suppose he was nominated for his fitness? Have you ever seen him? Do you ever expect to see him? Do you know what part he took in the doings of the Legislature—what bills he introduced, what he opposed, what votes he dodged, how constant and assiduous he was in his attendance? The replies to these questions would, we believe, be fairly startling, and would throw a flood of light on the divorce which now exists between representatives and constituents, or, in other words, on the fallacy that we are living under a representative system—a government of the people, by the people, and for the people. Our ruling class, in fact, is for the most part self-imposed upon the people, and, once elected, has no real responsibility to the people.

There are, no doubt, permanent causes which tend to make public life in a republic the goal of ambitious men of humble origin and education and low moral tone, and less and less attractive to quiet men of culture and respectability. In the absence of a titled class, public office furnishes a cheap avenue to distinction at all points of the scale; the working of the party machinery in primaries and caucuses gratifies the social craving among unlettered men, and gives them a mode of passing their evenings without ennui, whereas such occupations are repulsive and fatiguing to the refined and home-loving citizen. Again, apart from the hope of public plunder, office may considerably better the pecuniary condition of some who take it, while the middle and well-to-do classes must make a positive and often a very serious sacrifice to neglect their business in the public service. We can never expect to see, and perhaps it is not desirable to see, the time when something of sacrifice will not be involved in office-taking on the part of the intellectual and moral élite, and certainly the political path to elevation should not be closed to legitimate ambition. What is needed is for the community to throw its weight in favor of diminishing the obstacles to self-sacrifice, and of increasing the obstacles to unworthy ambition.

To limit ourselves for the moment to State Legislatures, their work ought to be closely followed by the public, and the means of following it ought not to be confined to reports of the press in city or in country. These are now rarely full or intelligent, even if any attention whatever is given to the ordinary proceedings at the State capitol. The *laws* are promulgated, and, as paid advertisements, help keep alive the weaker sheets, whose readers have little chance to observe the august process of making the laws. One Legislature follows another, leaving no clear impression of the physiognomy of the session or the ability and purity of the body as compared with its predecessors. When its members disperse, they return to figure, if at all, as individuals, not as partakers in a great public trust for which they ought to render an account to somebody. If they have not scandalously misbehaved, hundreds and thousands of the voters who sent them to the Legislature have absolutely no ground for refusing to reëlect them—as they could give none for electing them in the first place, except their party label. Thus, whether he stands again, or retires to private life in the game of rotation or because he is satisfied either with his experience, his title, or his gains, the so-called Representative is wholly unconcerned with the need of his constituents for information about himself and his colleagues in the discharge of representation.

This is because the practice of facing constituents with records instead of with

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promises does not exist among us. It does not exist because our political products are not popular and of the people, but of the Machine, to which the real responsibility of its creatures lies. Our popular elections are under duress because the nominations do not proceed from the people, and to redress one evil the usual sole alternative is to embrace another—that is, to vote for the opposition candidate. Why, then, should the constituency take enough interest in its compulsory choice to call him to a fictitious accounting? Or why should he be taken from a class capable of writing or speaking good English that he may justify on a platform the fictitious trust reposed in him? The result is, that such political education through discussion of public questions as the voter gets is either wholly through the newspapers, or in the heated meetings of the campaign preceding an election. Those questions are hardly ever discussed retrospectively with reference to legislative and personal action, and in the calm of the recess.

There is, however, no reason why this practice should not be instituted, especially in suburban and country districts. A handful of men, a self-constituted committee, can at any time ask a candidate openly whether, if elected by the aid of their votes, he will, on the adjournme. t of the Legislature, present himself to his constituents prepared to give a general sketch of the doings of the session, and of his own share in them, and to answer such questions as his constituents may feel moved to put to him. If the candidate agrees, the committee need only raise the trifling sum required to hire a hall; or they may go further and procure a shorthand report, to be given to the local newspaper and so spread to every corner of the district. Now the base and the incompetent will not relish this test, which will act as a sobering restraint on their ambition. The mere *sight* of them will often be enough to discredit them fatally before they have opened their lips; and one such exposure will make a place for an honester and more capable man, whether of high or of low degree.

We think we do not exaggerate the effect for good of this simple device, which completes the circle of the suffrage: the receipt of the popular commission at the polls, followed by a report of the manner in which it has been executed. Interest in men as in measures would cease to be spasmodic and periodic, and the State—were the practice to become universal—would be conscious of its own political development, as it is not now and cannot be, where all is left to chance or to intrigue, and where the people's delegate returns not in his orderly ellipse to the point of starting, but flies off into cometary space, never to be seen again. That Congress would profit by the same practice is a matter of course; but to reform the State Legislatures is to reform Congress.

THE ITCH FOR PUBLICITY.

In no way did the late M. Taine better show the seriousness, approaching austerity, of his conception of the scholar's life than by his consistent avoidance of all the modern methods of puffery. He was the deadly enemy of reporters, few of whom ever got beyond his door, those who did finding it a case of going farther and faring worse. Photographers spread the camera before him in vain The world will never know, through the illustrated papers, what was the furniture of Taine's study, or what were his pet animals, or how he looked when "at work." In short, he had the absurd and antiquated idea that the world had a right to know him only through the writings which he chose to give to the world, and that he was under no obligation whatever to furnish themes for idle chatter to that servants' hall which, according to M. André Hallays, modern society has become.

Since his death, new proofs have accumulated of his freedom from that rage for exhibiting themselves which makes so many of our notabilities uneasy when not in the focus of the public gaze. He had long kept a diary, in which he was in the habit of writing down every day, for his own eye, his impressions of the men and events of his time. This he committed bodily to the flames a few days before his death. What a waste! It must have contained material for wrecking a dozen reputations, for inflicting exquisite torture upon the families of a score of his contemporaries. Was there no Froude by to pluck such precious brands from the burning?

The care Taine took in regard to posthumous publication of his writings is equally obsolete—or else prophetic of the course to which in the future literary men are in a fair way to be driven. The provisions of his will bearing on the subject were made public by his widow on March 15 in a letter to the *Journal des Débats*. It seems that the *Figaro* had printed in its literary supplement a dozen unpublished sonnets from Taine's pen. There was nothing in them discreditable either to his character or his literary ability, but note with what an old-wives' mystery and nodding they were heralded, as if some choice bit of scandal:

> "These verses were never intended to see the light; only a few friends knew of their existence. The philosopher wished to keep his work secret as if it were a sin. How, then, did *Figaro* procure these beautiful sonnets? That is our secret. Chance put us on their track, but it was only with the greatest difficulty that we could get our hands on them."

This drew out the letter from Mme. Taine. The sonnets were only a recreation of her husband's on summer evenings, she said; they were never meant for publication; but three copies of them were in existence outside the family. Lest such breaches of confidence might be repeated, she would give to the public Taine's testamentary disposition of his literary remains. The clause in question is as follows:

> "I expressly charge my wife and my heirs to prevent as long as they live, in all legal ways, the publication of my confidential and private letters, of all kinds and descriptions. I also direct my wife and children to transmit this prohibition to their heirs and descendants, to be observed indefinitely. The only letters or correspondence which can be published are those relating to matters purely general or speculative—for example, philosophy, history, æsthetics, art, psychology; and from them all passages must be cut out which touch, remotely or immediately, upon private life, and none of them can be published except on the authorization of my heirs, after the said passages have been cut out by them."

The extract is worth reproducing, if only as a sign to an evil generation. Privacy is rapidly becoming one of the lost arts. A man who professes to wish to be by himself, to refuse to take the public into his confidence as to all his thoughts and plans, social, political, literary, religious, is set down as an obstinate curmudgeon, or a semi-lunatic, or else as a peculiarly crafty fellow who makes a show of reserve only to provoke greater interest in the clean breast of all his affairs which he proposes finally to make. We all remember how the reporters were "at fault," like so many puzzled pointer dogs, when the great Fayerweather gifts to charity were made so unostentatiously. "What, a million and a half given away and *we* not called in! What can be the man's sly scheme to advertise himself?"

We think Taine's example is of particular value because it is that of a literary man. It is probably useless to look for any speedy abatement of the itch for publicity on the part of many of our fellow-citizens. The politician will not soon give up his reporter, nor the eminent citizen and general oracle his typewritten impromptus. Reformers ought not to be too suddenly subjected to the discouragement of not seeing their names in the papers, nor can philanthropists be expected to find out in a single day the joy of "doing good by stealth." But we surely have a right to look for a finer feeling and a more shrinking modesty in those who are supposed to pass their days in the still air of delightful studies, or who set themselves to direct the thought and taste of their fellowmen. Who can estimate the damage done to the more delicate sensibilities of English-speaking people by the indiscretions and outrages and self-advertising of literary men in the past thirty years? It is actually no longer considered indecent for a writer to puff his own works in advance of publication, so that it is getting to be quite the common thing to see the public appetite whetted by the announcement that Mr. —— thinks his last volume is quite the best thing he has ever done.

It seems clear that the shocking indiscretions and immodesty of many modern writers are to be traced to the same cause as the impertinence and coarseness of modern journalism—the jingle of the guinea. Literary gossip and scandal, with a flavor of betrayed confidence about them,

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command their own terms. It was a rule laid down by Carlyle, at a time when he could not have dreamed of the horrible illustration of it he himself was to furnish—

"If you intend to interest reader —that is to say, idle neighbors and fellow-creatures in need of gossip—there is nothing like unveiling yourself: witness Jean-Jacques Rousseau, and many other poor waste creatures, going off in self-conflagration for the amusement of the parish."

But it is evident that there is already beginning to be a reaction against this sort of conflagration, and that serious minds like Taine and Tennyson will be more and more driven to the burning up of their diaries and letters, instead of exposing themselves and their friends to the flames, thus lending a new meaning to the Scriptural phrase, "saved, yet so as by fire."

THE FRANCO-SWISS CONVENTION.

PARIS, March 19, 1893.

THE Panama affair is more than ever the question of the day. At the present time the whole of France seems to exist for it alone. There is no end to the incidents that occur at the Chamber and Court of Assizes, and every day brings some fresh revelation. But the very multiplicity of these revelations and incidents serves rather to obscure than to clear up the situation. No one seems to know where we are and where we are drifting to. Neither in the Government, nor in the Chamber, nor in public opinion is there anything to be discerned that is clear and precise; and if one wishes to speak with exactitude and impartiality of the whole matter, one needs to let a few weeks go by in order to be able to appreciate the relative importance of the different elements and to draw sound conclusions from them. The Panama affair, however, is by no means the only question worthy of attracting attention in France. Far from it. While people had eyes only for this deplorable scandal, the Chambers were taking a decision, less noticeable, but perhaps graver in some respects, than the incidents at present occupying the public mind. It is very evident that economic questions are every day exercising more influence upon international politics, and for this reason the vote of the Chamber with regard to the commercial treaty existing between France and Switzerland cannot be lightly passed over. The consequences of this decision may not be felt immediately, but, if care is not taken, they may be none the less serious. It will be well, therefore, to give some little consideration to this subject.

To be able to understand what has taken place, it is necessary to go back to the first beginnings of the protective system which France has recently introduced, as also briefly to refer to the commercial policy pursued during the last few years. As will be recollected, in 1860 a commercial treaty with England was signed that marked a veritable revolution in the history of our commercial relations with other countries. Up to that time France had hedged herself round with a protective system of the most exclusive kind. This treaty, which granted to England a reduction of tariffs, was a first step taken in the direction of free trade. The treaties signed with other Powers during the years that followed further accentuated this evolution; and France soon found herself connected by contracts with the greater part of the countries of the world. A double tariff was then in use: there was a general tariff applied in the case of countries having no treaty with France, and a conventional tariff, as it was called, on a much lower scale, applicable to countries to which either particular concessions had been made, or to which had been accorded the most-favored-nation clause.

Nevertheless, ultra-protectionist ideas continued to number a large body of advocates in France, and the system of treaties initiated in 1860 was from time to time violently attacked on several of its points. The country, however, remained faithful to it, at least in its main lines, and the various commercial treaties were successively renewed. A short time after the last renewal, in 1881, protectionist tendencies appeared to be gaining ground, owing to causes somewhat complex and in general of too technical a character to be able to be set forth here. One example may be cited —the phylloxera. Up to the time that this plague invaded France, the vine-growers, who exported their wines, had been free-traders. As soon, however, as the yield fell off in quantity and quality to a formidable degree, and France began to import wines, the vine-growers became protectionists. This protectionist movement had as first consequence the augmentation of certain duties that did not figure on the conventional tariff list, and which therefore were always free to be modified. It was not long before matters went to a greater length, and measures of a more drastic character were decided on. The Government, supported by the Chambers, resolved to profit by the expiration in 1892 of all existing commercial treaties, and to abandon the system it had previously maintained. No more treaties were to be made containing special tariff clauses, and the different foreign Powers, instead, were to be invited to choose between two tariffs, both of which had been previously voted by Parliament. There was the maximum tariff, with nearly prohibitive duties, which was to be applied in the case of countries unwilling to accord sufficient concessions to imports from France; and there was the minimum tariff, by which all other countries might profit, but which, it is worth remarking, was made very much higher than the formerly existing conventional tariff. Nevertheless, the Government hoped to get it accepted by the foreign Powers it wished most to come to an understanding with, in exchange for the lowest existing tariff of these latter.

This hope was not well grounded, and Switzerland in particular protested against the course pursued by the French Government. It accepted the tariff, but only provisionally, and on condition that the French Government would consent to examine the Swiss claims and submit them to the Chambers. Negotiations were entered into on the matter, and, after some months passed in parleying, an understanding was arrived at that the French Ministry should ask the Chambers to reduce the duties of the minimum tariff on certain articles in which Swiss trade was especially concerned. The Chambers refused the proposal. This refusal was equivalent to the interruption of all commercial agreement with Switzerland, and involved the cessation of the *modus vivendi* that had been provisionally adopted. Swiss products were at once submitted to the maximum tariff by France, and French products entering Switzerland were in return compelled to pay very high duties.

The conclusions to be drawn from France's refusal to agree to the commercial treaty proposed by Switzerland may be said to be of two kinds, according as the fact is considered from the political or from the economic point of view. From this latter point of view there appears first the manifest intention to persevere in the protectionist policy initiated by the adoption of the now-existing tariffs. I do not pretend here to settle the delicate question as to whether the policy is good or bad; but it is at least permissible to affirm that such a policy is accompanied with certain drawbacks. The best proof of this is, that those who are most affected by the change are far from approving the attitude taken up by the Government. Even before the vote of the last tariffs, many Chambers of Commerce, and those not the least important, protested against the course about to be taken. Further, when one comes to consider Switzerland, the disadvantages certainly appear to outweigh the advantages. It is true that Swiss competition is particularly keen in some French industries—the clock trade for instance; and it is only natural there should be a desire to protect such trades. But between a limited protection like this and the extreme measures actually taken, there can be no comparison, especially as these measures may produce consequences almost irrevocable.

The importance of the Swiss market to French trade is not a matter on which doubt can exist. This is not the place to quote statistics, as figures always need to be discussed and commented on, or else ample evidence might be forthcoming to prove this importance. The proof will, however, appear in the very fact that the Government, in order to avoid, if possible, the closing of the Swiss market to our products, consented to propose to the Chamber a modification of the tariff recently voted. Now the refusal of the Chamber to admit the proposed modification has had the effect, as I have above indicated, of subjecting French products entering Switzerland to exceptionally high duties. And under such conditions French products will no longer be able to compete with the products of countries that are more favored, as, for instance, those of Germany. The orders formerly given by Swiss merchants to French houses will henceforth be executed in other countries; and if these other countries succeed in satisfying the Swiss demand, France will not be able, even if the existing system be abolished, to regain the position it occupied until recently.

Outside of these economic conditions there are others, more delicate and more difficult to set forth, which render the measures just taken fraught with very serious issues. The rejection of the proposed convention has produced a deep impression in Switzerland, and the line of conduct pursued in this matter, considered in conjunction with other incidents wherein France has not shown all the amenity she might have done, has powerfully contributed to call forth throughout the Helvetic Confederation a certain feeling of hostility towards us. Now this state of things is disagreeable in more than one respect. Granted that Switzerland is a neutral Power, and that its hostility, in case of conflict, cannot show itself in as grave a way as if it were a country untrammelled in its movements, yet this hostility can manifest itself in many ways by reason of the constant relations the various States are compelled to maintain with each other. In certain contingencies it might even become very troublesome, as, for instance, in the case of international railways (there are some branch lines in Switzerland at the present time under French control), or of industrial or literary property of any kind.

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It would seem as though France more than any other Power ought to endeavor to remain on good terms with Switzerland. The time has certainly gone by when a French sovereign entitled himself the protector of the Helvetic Confederation. France, notwithstanding this, had continued to preserve a preponderating influence in the policy of the Confederation. Alone among all the other Powers, it maintains an ambassador at Berne instead of an ordinary minister, and this distinction seems to indicate a certain difference in its relations with Switzerland from those kept up by other nations. Thus, for example, in negotiations with Oriental Powers, it is French representatives that are intrusted with Swiss interests. These relations, difficult to be defined, these ties existing between the two countries, are the things at stake in the present crisis, which, by the measures recently taken, threatens to end in a rupture. This would be a disadvantage for France, and the more so as the other Powers would not fail to profit by the situation, in order to improve their own relations with the Confederation and thus isolate France.

This isolation appears, indeed, to be one of the consequences that attach to the ultra-protectionist policy we have entered on, and in which the rejection of the Franco-Swiss convention shows that we have decided to persevere. Nor is it merely a question of economic isolation, for the connection between economic questions and questions of a purely political order is such that the one involves the other. Some economists, as I have already had occasion to observe, dream of a union between the European States, based on commercial questions, and the necessity that exists of coming to an understanding so as to cope with the competition, every day more formidable, of the United States. I do not know how far such a combination may come to be a realized fact. One thing is certain, and that is, that the events I have endeavored to sketch thus briefly are not calculated to hasten the accomplishment of any such union. S.

AMERICAN DIPLOMACY.

ITALY, March 18, 1893.

FEW Americans living abroad, as some of us, for our or our parents' sins or our defects, are obliged to, and others of us do because they prefer it simply, will regard the return of Mr. Cleveland to the Presidency without some such feeling as shipwrecked mariners on a raft have when they sight a ship on the horizon. One of the disastrous effects of living abroad, in the midst of old culture and the traditions of society which has been organized for generations, so that it has become in a way classified by the process of deposition—*i. e.*, settled in its ways and customs—is that we get accustomed to, and learn to like, orderly and organized administration of public affairs, stable civil service, the smooth way of getting along which results from functionaries of all kinds having been thoroughly habituated to their duties, etc., etc. This state of mind may be, and probably is, regarded by the average home-staying American as slavish deference to aristocracy and rotten institutions, but it nevertheless causes a sensation of social well-being and repose which American society, even in Boston, can never give, till America is, socially and politically, organized. Now, though the number of Americans who come abroad, or who live more or less abroad, is many ten thousands, and though they are supposed by the natural process of cultivation to carry back some good results of their life abroad, I do not pretend that they are entitled to weigh in the national councils as to home government for as much as those who stay at home; but there is a branch of the public service which seems to have been organized for our special benefit (or, if not for that, then I must say that I can conceive of no other purpose in it), and that is the diplomatic, and in reference to this I think we have a right to be heard.

We (collectively) have suffered for years not merely the mortification of seeing as the representatives of our country at foreign courts men whose diplomatic incompetency made them the laughing-stock of their colleagues, but sometimes men whose ignorance of the ordinary usages of refined society, American or European, makes us blush when they put their feet in a drawing-room where gentlemen and ladies are assembled. It has happened that these representatives of our country became, by their curious ways, the standing joke of the communities in which they figured. I remember one who, unable to speak any language but English, used to ask an audience of the sovereign to whom he was accredited, whenever he had a piece of business which demanded an interpreter, and another who sent back the invitations to a court ball for his family, saying that "he did not allow his women to go to parties where women danced half naked"; and of both these the absurd doings were the laughter of the town. They were extreme cases, but is it not commonly the case that the ministers we send abroad know neither French, which every diplomat is compelled to know in every other country, nor the language of the country he goes to? Since I have lived in Italy, the only minister we have had who did not in some way or other call attention to his ignorance of diplomatic or social usages was the late George P. Marsh, though we do sometimes manage to send a secretary of legation who is competent to perform the duties of his chief, if that were the usage. This complete indifference to the diplomatic qualities of the minister, or his fitness for the transaction of diplomatic business, makes it clear that the object of his coming is to preside over the American society in the capital to which he is sent. There is no *tertium quid*.

It is a recognized fact that all our diplomacy is done at Washington, and that, with the exception of England and Turkey, we have never had any real use for a minister abroad; and in Turkey, though we had need of activity in the minister, we never got any good from him, and the murders of the Smyrna missionaries are unpunished to this day. As we can hardly send a minister to London who does not speak the English language, we have a large field for choice, and there is no pretext for sending an incompetent man; but anywhere else we can, and generally do, blunder. The American public does not understand that diplomacy is a business which, like any other, has to be learned, and that therefore we have no diplomats; but these are facts. Why have them since we have no need of them? What we want, and all we want, is a decorous figure-head for the American community at the capital to which he is accredited—a court personage, somebody to present us at the receptions, receive once a week during the season, and figure in the lists of the diplomatic dinners, etc., etc.—for, in spite of our vociferous republican simplicity, I find no foreign colony so insistent on the presentations at court and the right to social eminence, I might say preëminence, as the American, and our minister must be a man to smooth matters for us in these respects. And how can he be all this, knowing neither court etiquette, French, nor good manners? Every American claims to be a gentleman or a lady, and is bound to insist that the man who represents him at court shall be a gentleman in the full sense of the word, recognized as such by the standard of the country where he goes, and received into fellowship by the court officials and the diplomatic body, which is always composed of gentlemen. What figure does a man make who has to take an interpreter to converse with the King or Queen? And supposing that by chance a bit of diplomatic business must be done, requiring tact and argument, how will a minister manage who can talk no language that the Minister of Foreign Affairs understands? But this is the case with three-fourths of our representatives abroad. And we think of raising them to the rank of ambassador—to make their unfitness more conspicuous, I suppose. And we pride ourselves a great deal on being a thoroughly practical nation! We are extravagantly sensitive about our national dignity, and there is not a country in the civilized world, except England, where our so-called diplomatic service does not, at one time or another, make us ridiculous.

We have got so far towards an establishment as to have appointed some secretaries of legation who hold from one minister to another, because otherwise the new minister would be as helpless as a new-born babe; but there is no promotion and no certainty of permanence in the position. The best and most useful secretary lately in the service resigned a few days ago, weary of perpetual underservice without recognition or the chance of promotion, and disgusted with the conditions of our diplomacy. Both minister and secretary are paid such miserable pittances that without private fortunes they must live in a way which makes the United States of America seem the meanest (as it is supposed to be the richest) country in the world. Our figure abroad is the bitterest satire on our pretensions at home. We swagger and boast of the wealth we hold, the debts we have paid, and the inexhaustible resources we possess, and we send a minister abroad to represent all this dignity and greatness on a salary that compels him to live in an apartment on the second story, or in a house in some obscure part of the city he will spend four years in—furnished lodgings, and probably taken by the month.

All this is schoolboy's management. It is indecent and unworthy the nation. If we want a diplomatic service, we should organize it properly and pay it decently. Increase of the salaries would, of course, intensify the eagerness for diplomatic appointments, but when these are included in a permanent civil service, the eagerness will do no harm. If it should be decided, on the contrary, that what we want is a sort of figure-head for the American colonies abroad, let the appointments be made as now, but let us be sure that the minister is a man whose manners and education will not make us ridiculous.

Correspondence.

FAILURE INSURED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The April *Forum* contains an article by Seth Low on "The Great Democratic Opportunity." With the profoundest respect for such high authority, it must be said that no

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such opportunity exists. Prophecy in politics is neither safe nor wise, but, in the desperate hope of enforcing a lesson, I will venture to predict that within four years the country will be even more disgusted with the Democrats than it has been with the Republicans, if only for the want of that organizing skill in party tactics which the Republicans have at least learned in their twenty-five years of rule. Mr. Cleveland's nomination and election furnished magnificent testimony to the power and the character of the people of the United States, but there it all ends. He has not the slightest power over either policy or legislation. His inaugural address might as well have been a general exhortation to virtue, honesty, and patriotism, which, indeed, is about the view the English papers, noticing it extensively, take of it. He does not dare to call an extra session, because he has no knowledge or confidence as to what the new Congress will do. Some time since the *Evening Post* suggested that he should refuse to make any disposition of the offices until the Silver Bill was repealed. But is not that the quintessence of the spoils system, that the offices should be used to bend Congress to the will of the President, good or bad? Is not that the way that President Jackson laid the foundation of the evil system? And does it not carry the logical consequence, which followed almost instantly upon Jackson's action, that Congress will use legislation to bend the will of the President in regard to the offices? And yet it is the only positive power over legislation which he possesses.

The new Congress will meet as a perfectly disorganized mob, without official guides or leaders of any kind, and in its conflict with the lobby will be just as certain to be beaten as a regiment, even of the bravest men, would be which should go into battle without officers. The nation as a whole will have no representative; all its effort in electing a President, and through him an administrative staff, being almost completely thrown away. The one important question, how to get a majority, will be from the start a process of intrigue and lobbying, in which honest and public-spirited men stand no chance against knaves and those who are looking after their own private interests.

It is to be hoped that some day, when the country gets tired of the weary round from Republicans to Democrats and back again—on the principle of the traveller who was told that, whichever road he took, he would wish he had taken the other—it may think it worth while to consider whether there is not something to be gained from a change of organization. G. B.

Boston, March 31, 1893.

EVIDENCES OF CURRENCY INFLATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is remarkable that, in spite of the plain facts of the monetary situation, many intelligent and educated people, including some of large business experience, still insist that the prolonged export of gold is not an indication of an inflation of the currency. A short review of the situation will show that this is a mistake.

The reasons that have been given for the loss of gold may be summarized thus:

(1.) That the balance of trade is against us.

(2.) That our securities are coming home.

(3.) That Europe is hoarding gold and paying a premium to get it.

(4.) That the *continuance* of the loss of gold is made possible by the silver issues—that is, that our currency is inflated.

To consider these in their order: In 1887, with the balance of trade (using this phrase in the ordinary sense of balance of trade in merchandise) in our favor to the extent of about 6½ millions, the net *imports* of gold were about 35¾ millions; in 1888 the balance of trade was about 33 millions against us, and the net gold exported was about 23½ millions; in 1889 the balance was 56½ millions in our favor, and the net export of gold was nearly 39 millions; in 1890 the balance was in our favor 34 millions of dollars, and the net export of gold was a little less than four millions; in 1891 the balance in our favor was 142 millions, and our net loss of gold was 34 millions; and last year, 1892, the balance was in our favor by 62 millions, while yet we lost 59 millions of gold. The lack of correspondence between the movement of the balance of trade and that of gold, and the great irregularity of the divergence, show that the trade movement is not a sufficient explanation of the gold outflow.

As to the second statement, that our securities are being sent home, there is not much evidence that this is being done to any great extent; but in so far as it is so, it would point to currency inflation here. For the possible causes of the "unloading" by European holders are either that they can find better investments elsewhere, or that they are in need of money for trade purposes, or that they distrust our monetary policy. The first reason is not true, and there appears but little evidence to support the second; hence the third must be accepted as the true explanation. That is, in the judgment of foreign investors we are in danger of being driven to an inferior currency.

In the next place, there seems to be little doubt of the truth of the third statement mentioned above. Europe is partly hoarding gold and partly purchasing it for specie-resumption purposes, especially in Austria. Now, if the amount of money in this country were not more than necessary to do business at current prices, the drain due to this cause would have been cut off by lower prices and a higher rate of interest here. But these effects have not been produced in anything like the degree that such a drain of gold as we have experienced would have caused if not counteracted. Hence, it must have been counteracted by an increased supply of currency here sufficiently large to maintain the same approximate level of prices and interest in the face of the loss of gold. In other words, Europe could not continue to take our gold, especially with the balance of trade in our favor, unless its loss were made up for us by some other currency. Hence, the fourth statement made above is true, that the *continuance* of the loss of gold, in various states of trade, is made possible by our silver issues. The conclusion is irresistible that we are coming gradually to an inferior currency.

But, in addition to this negative evidence, there is some of a positive nature which points strongly in the same direction. First, "a comparison of the figures [of per-capita circulation] for the four countries which may be said to lead the civilization of the day," gives the United States $25.62; the United Kingdom, $17.90; France, $43.11, and Germany $16.40. Excepting France, where the per-capita circulation is largely due to the comparatively small development of a credit system and to the ignorance and prejudice of the peasants, this country leads in the comparison above by an amount far too great to be sufficiently accounted for by any peculiar national conditions. Moreover, in spite of our tremendous loss of gold, our per-capita circulation continues to increase, and it has increased in a more rapid ratio since the present Silver Law went into effect.

Evidence of inflation is found, too, in the actual replacement of a large amount of gold with nearly double its amount of silver in actual circulation. The gold production of the United States for the four years 1889 to 1892, inclusive, was $132,820,000*. Of this, $45,600,000 was used in the arts, not including old material. Deducting the latter sum from the former, we have $87,220,000 as the additional amount of gold available for monetary purposes for these four years. The net exports of gold for the same time amounted to $135,920,000.† Thus, the amount of gold available for monetary purposes for this period fell $48,700,000 short of the quantity needed simply to repair the loss by export, to say nothing of the additional amount needed by expanding business and population. In the meantime, however, the silver, including standard dollars and certificates outstanding, increased $199,000,000. Thus, not only was the hole in the circulation due to the loss of $48,000,000 of gold filled by silver, but an additional amount of $151,000,000 of silver was also forced in. Allowing for all errors, and for factors not taken into account, this is an addition far larger than the natural expansion of the business of the country would warrant. It points irresistibly to silver inflation.—Respectfully yours,

David Kinley.

Madison, Wis., March 24, 1893.

*In this estimate $34,000,000 is allowed for the production of 1892, the figures for which are not at hand. This amount would allow for a production of half a million more than was produced in 1891. An estimate of $12,000,000 is also made of the amount used in the arts in 1892.

†According to the *Commercial and Financial Chronicle.*

THE PARCELS POST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: At the risk of being set down as a too credulous believer in the results of the late election, I venture to express a hope that the noble and patriotic self-denial of the friends of American industry will be so far relaxed as to permit the examination of both sides of the comparatively unimportant question of what we know abroad as the "parcels post," the convenience of which very few Americans appreciate. In the anxiety of the Complete Protectionist to put every possible obstacle in the way of importation short of absolute prohibition, the provisions of the Postal Union for the easy transmission of small objects by the post are not extended to Americans. I suppose the Complete hesitated at the amount of annoyance that would logically be given the importers in this small way if the custom-house usages were applied to them, and so he decided not to permit it. The consequence, owing to the immense predominance of the American production of desirable trifles, is that we who live abroad, and would gladly order from home many little conveniences to which we are accustomed, and which we might introduce by showing them, are precluded from doing so through the fear that some small importations might steal in, or give the custom-house authorities a greater amount of trouble in collecting the duties than they (the duties, I mean) are worth.

I am certain that our commerce loses three times as much as that of Europe by this interdict, and I can testify that Americans abroad are the chief sufferers by this practice of cutting off our noses to spite our faces. At this moment, for instance, I want a supply of reading-glasses, and there is an American produc-

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tion which is so far superior to anything I can purchase on this side that I would at once order half-a-dozen if I could get them as I could from England or from any European manufacturer; but to get them I must find some friend in England who will allow them to be sent there in a consignment of goods, and then send them on to me by the parcels post. No long time passes without a similar want being known in the family, but the miserable apprehension that importation as well as exportation should be made easy has made this relief impossible. Of course the Complete will say that we had better come home, and that Americans who stay abroad have sacrificed all claim to relief from the consequences; but how about the interests of trade and American manufactures? This phase of protectionism is not more absurd than any other, but it is so little and so ridiculous!—Yours truly,

ALL ABROAD.

ROME, March 10, 1893.

PAROCHIAL CRITICISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The reflection was very justly made that our American criticism was provincial, that the attitude of our critics towards our local celebrities was much like that of a boy who picks up his first quartz crystal and thinks it a diamond. Dickens, we remember, ridiculed our fathers for their characteristic exaggeration. But it was supposed that we had outgrown this youthful appetite for superlatives, and that our best criticism might fairly rank with that of England or the Continent. Unfortunately for the realization of this hope, there burst upon us from time to time, from quarters least expected, startling proofs that our criticism is still provincial. The latest melancholy example of this is in the *Atlantic Monthly* for April, in an article on Phillips Brooks, signed by Alexander V. G. Allen. That at this time, so near Phillips Brooks's death, the average critic should become a eulogist is unavoidable, but that a supposed competent critic in such a periodical as the *Atlantic* should give vent to the following extravagances makes us wonder whether indeed we have made any advance in criticism:

"Phillips Brooks was hampered by no limitations of theory or conventionality; when he entered the pulpit, *he was as impersonal as Shakspere.*"

"His true place is with those who loom up in the Church's history as larger than institutions. He belongs with St. Paul, . . . with Athanasius, . . . with Francis of Assisi, . . . with Luther."

"His place is secure among the greatest: with Schleiermacher and Goethe; with Coleridge, Carlyle, Tennyson, and Browning; with Hawthorne, Emerson, Channing, Longfellow, and Whittier. Though the last to appear, *he was in some respects the greatest of them all.*"

"Had he gone into literature, . . . it seems as if his excellence would have been equally assured."

"Had he given himself to speculation, he would have been a philosopher of the highest order."

He has, continues this writer, preached sermons which deserve to be placed with St. Paul's sermon on Mars Hill, and which will, presumably, be read as long as that is read. "The attestation of their truth is the response they have produced, as though the people had stamped them with approval—that verdict from which there can be no appeal."

But I need not multiply instances, nor would I cite these were it not that, as an admirer of Phillips Brooks, I regret to have his memory injured by this unwise comparison of him with men with whom he would have been the first to say he could not be compared. Moreover, it draws the attention of men away from those very real qualities in him which made him a noble influence in his day and generation.

CLIO.

BOSTON, March 31, 1893.

POPULAR ETYMOLOGIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I be allowed to express some doubts in regard to the explanations given of the "popular etymologies" examined in an article contained in your number of the 9th of February last? I note the following statement:

"In the development of language not only may we observe known and formal laws of change; but we become aware that imagination or caprice or accident plays no small rôle . . ."

I am under the impression that these words convey an entirely wrong idea of actual facts, (1) that the invariable cause of *even* "popular etymology" is always to be found a phonetic one; (2) that imagination, caprice, or accident can hardly be said to play any rôle in these formations; in fact, that there are no such things in the everlasting process of change that constitute the eternal life of articulate speech. These assertions can easily be verified by an unprejudiced mind, in connection with the English formations quoted in the article, in which evidently the popular meaning was determined by the sounds.

In regard to βόσπορος giving Bosphorus, it would, indeed, be anything but popular etymology if the influence of φέρω is admitted, for it is a very clear instance of learned, and *very learned*, etymology if such be the case; and the same may be said of τρόπαιον *trophæum*. What should be borne in mind in order to understand this change of *p* into *f* is solely the nature of these two sounds—that is to say, the physiological cause only. Nothing is more frequent, on this account, than the change of a dental labial into a bilabial, and vice versa.

προβοσκίς *promoscis promuscis* is plain enough: *b* and *m* are identical sounds as far as their place of articulation is concerned, the only difference being that the velum palati is opened for the last. Hence the constant interchange of these two sounds in their passage from one language into another. The same explanation holds good for the change of *d* into *l;* the place of articulation being also the same, and the sides of the tongue being simply lowered for the formation of the *l*.

"*J'en passe . . . et des meilleures.*" I feel bound to withhold any further criticism, lest I should; unwillingly, appear harsh in my treatment. I earnestly hope, however, that the writer may reconsider what he says about βουκόλος *bubsequa* and *baccalaureus bachelor*. Any one acquainted with old French declension cannot help smiling at the latter.

The fact is that, except for the English words cited at the beginning of the article, not a single word quoted in it is due to popular etymology. And now the question confronts us: What is popular etymology? I shall define it: "The influence exerted upon foreign words by certain meanings existing in the language into which they pass, owing to similarity between the sounds expressing that meaning and the sounds of the foreign word." Consequently, the point I particularly wish to emphasize is this: Phonetic laws alone should be invoked in order to reach an explanation. In presence of any form, no matter how strange it may appear, the method is: (1) to consider the nature of the sounds; (2) to inquire into their relations to other sounds. The science of phonetics is comparatively new, and its most pressing need at this stage of its development is to get at *facts*. Theories are confusing; imagination, caprice, or accident cannot help. First, let us have the facts; next we shall deduce laws; for, like all living organisms, language obeys laws, and laws alone. Rather than call into play imagination, caprice, or accident in order to explain scientific facts, let philology stay where it was put by Voltaire, who defines it as a science "où les consonnes n'y font rien et les voyelles pas grand'chose."

Yours respectfully, RENÉ DE POYEN.

MT. WASHINGTON, MD., March 22, 1893.

[The purpose of our notice was to give a short and readable résumé of Keller's book, without, however, ourselves assuming the responsibility therefor; in fact, being fully aware that much of his material was unproved conjecture. We accept Mr. de Poyen's definition of popular etymology; we have never entertained any other. We should have guarded more carefully our remarks about "imagination, caprice, and accident," but our meaning has been mistaken, else Mr. de Poyen would not have made the sweeping statement in regard to the words we selected almost at random from Keller's hundreds. To be brief, we are told by Brugmann that *l* appears for *d* in about twelve Latin words, *e.g.*, *lacruma* for *dacruma*, *lingua* for *dingua*. "This change, due to the dorsal articulation of the *d*, was possibly not occasioned by any special phonetic conditions whereby *d* stood in the words in question opposed to other Latin words containing *d*, but had its origin in some local dialect." But granting that the change of *dingua* to *lingua* follows phonetic laws, then, after the change had been made, it was an accident—we think—that there existed in Latin a root *lih, lich* (in *lingere*, which has no connection with *lingua*) to which it pleased the popular etymologist to refer the newly made word. Was it not an accident that *pubes* existed ready to the hand of the popular etymologist to give to *pubeda* its special meaning? According to our understanding of it, this is Keller's point of view, as it was our own, and we think that it differs no whit from Mr. de Poyen's. We need not, therefore, speak in detail of the history of the challenged words. As for *bachelor*, the views given are not original with Keller, who makes no claim of the sort, but seem to be generally accepted. (See Skeat *sub voce.*)

We add the remark that Keller will have done much to advance the science of language if his book do nothing more than call forth unsparing criticism, and prompt painstaking research in refutation of his theories and etymologies.—ED. NATION.]

GRASS WIDOW AGAIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been a good deal surprised at the discussion over the phrase a "grass widow." The phrase was in common use in Boston when I grew up; and when I first asked what it meant, I was told it was the survival

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of a phrase brought in with the Norman conquest—"a widow de grâce," that is, by courtesy; her husband (dead or alive) being unaccounted for. Of course, the French phrase was easily degraded to a "grass widow."

CAROLINE H. DALL.

WASHINGTON, March 29, 1893.

THE ANGLO-SAXON SABBATH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Tupper is quite right in saying, in your last issue, that the Puritan adaptation of the Jewish Sabbath was anticipated upon English soil by over five hundred years. But such adaptation was, so far as is known, substantially without influence upon the post-Norman development of those Sunday customs which we have inherited. Consequently, in my necessarily brief sketch (*Nation*, No. 1339) of the development of the "American Sabbath," "the Anglo-Saxon codes" were passed over in silence—not in ignorance: the words "English statute law" were chosen purposely to exclude them.

The Anglo-Saxon Sunday laws are quite similar to contemporary Continental laws collected by Irmischer ('Staats und Kirchen-Verordnungen über die christliche Sonntags-Feier,' 1839), and, like Mr. Tupper's other data, of no small interest. But, whatever their effect in Anglo-Saxon times, the inference is not warranted that they exerted a wide-reaching subsequent influence. On the contrary, they seem to have been long forgotten in England itself, though attention enough was finally devoted to them when, upon the publication of the 'Book of Sports,' the Sabbatarian controversy took a legal turn. H.

ITHACA, N. Y.

THE NEW ENGLISH DICTIONARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In an article on "The Great Dictionary," in the current number of your journal, you say: "We cannot foresee the day when a supplement will be undertaken." But a supplement is already in preparation by Dr. Murray and his assistants. It will contain, if I understand it rightly, quotations of an earlier or a later date for a given word than those already found in the Dictionary; words which have sprung up since the publication of the several parts of the Dictionary; words already in use, such, for example, as Mrs. Browning's *angeldom*, but which have been overlooked in the Dictionary; and such other matter as may seem of importance.

A READER FOR THE DICTIONARY.

LAKEWOOD, N. J., April 3, 1893.

[This supplement will properly form part of the main work, like the customary volume supplementary to encyclopædias, being continuous with the first publication. What we had in mind was the interval of time that must elapse before an independent extension and revision of the Dictionary would be undertaken by the Dr. Murray of the future.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

DAVID MCKAY, Philadelphia, announces 'The Pursuit of Happiness: A Book of Studies and Strowings,' by Dr. Daniel G. Brinton.

The Geo. M. Allen Co., New York, are about to publish a book of sketches of travel by Walter Phelps Dodge, author of 'Three Greek Tales.'

The "Rulers of India" series of the Messrs. Macmillan draws towards its close with 'Aurangzib,' which will be from the pen of Stanley Lane-Poole. The same house has in press 'Annals of an Old Manor House [Sutton Place],' by Frederic Harrison.

Dr. Richard Muther, Privatdocent in the University of Munich and Director of the Cabinet of Engravings in the Old Pinakothek, has written a 'History of Painting in the Nineteenth Century,' which George Hirth of Munich will publish. A chapter is to be devoted to American painters.

Reprints multiply. That of the London *Times* biographies, called 'Eminent Persons' (Macmillan), covers the years 1882-1886 in its third volume, whose list of twenty names embraces "summits" like Darwin, Garibaldi, Gambetta, Gordon, Gortchakoff, Grant, and Victor Hugo, besides Sir Moses Montefiore, Dr. Pusey, W. E. Forster, Sir Bartle Frere, the Comte de Chambord, etc. The G's in this list are associated with the greatest political changes, in our day and generation, in both hemispheres and in the five continents. From the Harpers we have received three additions to their uniform series of William Black's novels, viz., 'The Beautiful Wretch,' 'Sunrise,' and 'White Wings.' Roberts Bros. send us two more volumes of Miss Ferrier, 'The Inheritance,' agreeable to the eye and light to the hand. Little, Brown & Co. have begun a library edition of Bulwer's novels with 'The Caxtons' in two volumes. The form is a convenient 16mo, the typography fair and open, the covers stamped in diaper with abundance of gilt; an etched frontispiece accompanies each volume. The University Press is not often to be charged with such a lapse as occurs in the repeated motto from Horace on the two title-pages, "Dî, proves mores," in vol. i., "Dî provos mores" in vol. ii., for "probos." From Macmillan we have in one volume Dickens's 'American Notes, and Pictures from Italy,' following the first editions, as heretofore. The younger Dickens's introductory remarks about the former work are brief and in excellent taste. The same publishers have issued, in the Messrs. Black's "Dryburgh Edition" of Scott's novels, 'Old Mortality,' with illustrations by Frank Dodd. Finally, the 'Waverley' of the large-paper "International Limited Edition" of Scott edited by Andrew Lang, and manufactured and published in this country by Estes & Lauriat, has reached our table. Of this edition we can now only particularize that it is to fill forty-eight octavo volumes and be illustrated by some 300 etchings and photo-etchings. It is very simply bound in blue cloth, with white title-label on the back, and gilt tops.

The long-awaited third edition of Bryce's 'American Commonwealth' appears in the first volume just brought out by Macmillan & Co. in advance of the second, owing to a healthy demand for it from colleges. We cannot attempt now to itemize the multiplicity of alterations not sensibly affecting the bulk of this volume, but insuring accuracy and freshness to date. On the appearance of the second volume there will probably be an opportunity for comment. To read "46th thousand" on the title-page of a work like this is most inspiriting.

Part i. of Mr. A. Growoll's 'The Profession of Bookselling: A Handbook of Practical Hints for the Apprentice and Bookseller' (*Publishers' Weekly*), is a thin volume, attractively printed, that deserves a place among reference books by reason of its bibliography. Here are lists of works fitted to impart to the bookseller (and to the common reader) a general knowledge of the field of English and American literature, of Continental literature, of the classical and Oriental, etc.; lists of trade catalogues, of library catalogues, of trade journals and literary journals; and a broad reference library, including a chapter on copyright. We have barely suggested the fulness and utility of this collection of titles, to a majority of which the bookseller must remain, we fear, a complete stranger. For its main purpose this is an excellent manual. Besides the complementary Part ii., Mr. Growoll contemplates handbooks for stationers and bookmakers.

M. Octave Uzanne's long-promised 'Physiologie des Quais de Paris du Pont Royal au Pont Sully' (Paris: Quantin; New York: F. W. Christern) is scarce the better for its deliberate gestation, as it now reveals that its author tired of his work before he had brought it to a conclusion. M. Uzanne, generally an easy and vivacious writer, has had to call in the aid of the easy vivacity of M. B. H. Gausseron to fill out his pages. Thus the volume has a flavor of book-making always unpleasant to the true book-lover, to whom the most of M. Uzanne's earlier writings have appealed. None the less the subject was excellent, and by this the book benefits; and to M. Uzanne and his assistant we owe an amusing sketch of the out-door book trade of Paris, now in the midst of a crisis. We are taken behind the scenes, as it were, and made to look at the second-hand book business from the second-hand book-dealer's point of view. The illustrations, by M. Émile Mas, are as slight as the text, but they will preserve to posterity many curious types characteristic of the quays of Paris in this last decade of the nineteenth century.

The tenth and eleventh volumes of Lafontaine's works in the "Grands Écrivains de la France" have just been published by Hachette. They complete the edition, and contain a Lafontaine lexicon and an essay on this author's grammar.

The most instructive paper in M. Georges Pelissier's 'Essais de Littérature Contemporaine' (Paris: Lecène, Oudin & Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern) is one on the evolution of the French Alexandrine verse, as it was used in Boileau's time, and as it has been modified by the Romanticists, the later Parnassians, and the latest Symbolists. Another noteworthy essay is that on the slow acclimatization of the Shaksperian drama in France.

'Suzanne Reichenberg' forms the subject of the first of a series of monographs on the actors of the Comédie-Française by Edmond Stoullig (Paris: Librairie de *l'Art;* New York: Macmillan). Fourteen pages are allotted to this favorite actress, of whom many slight character sketches are given, with no really good portrait among them.

La Grande Dame is the title of a monthly "revue mondaine cosmopolite" just started by Quantin in Paris. Its aim is the propaganda of "elegance." A portrait "de Grand Dame" will accompany each number; the Comtesse de Paris being the first to be thus honored, and being shown in her surroundings at Stowe House. Fashion plates after great ladies, designs of furniture and feminine bric-à-brac, scenes from the theatre, a *chronique*, and a *causerie littéraire* are among the other features of the new magazine.

The March number of the *Portfolio* (Macmillan) is noteworthy for a first article on English bookbindings illustrated not only in black

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and white, but also finely in color. This paper stops at the reign of Queen Elizabeth.

A colored plate in the *American Journal of Archæology* for Jan.–March shows the pre-Persian Typhon pediment which emerged from the excavations on the Athenian Acropolis, and as to the class of which fragments and their relation to wooden temples and vase ornamentation there is an interesting paper by Mr. C. L. Brownson of the American School of Classical Studies. Another plate shows in its true sequence the commonly disarranged frieze of the choragic monument of Lysicrates, which is discussed by Mr. H. F. De Cou of the same School.

An interesting account of Madagascar is given by M. J. le Savoureux in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for March. He dwells especially upon native customs and beliefs, the most curious, perhaps, being that "the soul can be separated from the body during twelve or fifteen months before death." This can be accomplished by a sorcerer's placing his foot on a man's shadow. These sorcerers are often employed to recapture the soul, which resembles a bee and "has flown away to a neighboring mountain." M. Savoureux gives a discouraging account of the Hovas, with whose professed Christianity he believes to be mingled a faithful adherence to old idolatrous traditions and practices. Nearly half the population, he affirms, are slaves, "prisoners of war, insolvent debtors, victims of an intrigue or of political vengeance condemned as criminals," and the children of slaves, born in slavery. Their condition is comparatively easy, many preferring to remain in bondage to escape military service. They are of two classes, the State slaves, who may attain to the highest honors, and the slaves of private individuals, who may themselves become rich and own slaves.

The principal articles in the *Geographical Journal* for March are an account of a journey to the highlands of Borneo by Mr. C. Hose, during which some new and extraordinary forms of animal life were discovered, and a report of an adventurous expedition through Somali-land in East Africa by Commander Dundas. This officer, in making his way up the Jub River, found that for about a hundred miles of its course the country on either bank was inhabited by runaway slaves to the number of 30,000 or 40,000 souls. They were mostly employed in cultivating bananas and plantains, but in one village he saw cotton growing, "which was picked by girls, several twisting it on to improvised reels. A man was weaving with a wooden loom and shuttle, very primitive, but ingenious, of native make. The man sat in a hole, working a double treadle, and wove cloths of excellent texture, which were worn by the natives. On inquiry I learned that not one from the village had ever been to the coast or seen a white man." These people, who speak Swahili, placed themselves eagerly under the protection of the East Africa Company. Prof. Schoute gives a brief description of a "thoroughly practicable" scheme for the reclamation of the Zuiderzee. It is proposed to run a dam across the mouth of the sea, and to drain certain large tracts along its margin, "leaving in the centre a tract of fresh water, the Ysel Lake, from which wide, navigable channels will radiate to the important towns." By this means more than 500,000 acres of fertile land will be reclaimed at a total estimated cost of $80,000,000.

The Royal Geographical Society has published a Supplementary Paper containing a very elaborate Bibliography of Morocco, compiled by Sir Lambert Playfair and Dr. Robert Brown. It is the fourth part of the Bibliography of the Barbary States. There are more than two thousand references arranged chronologically, not only to books but to papers in public records, etc. The first entry is the work of Hecatæus in B. C. 520; the last is a speech by Lord Salisbury reported by a daily paper in 1891.

Prof. J. M. Hart writes encouragingly of the "Outlook for English in New York State," in the April number of the *School Review*, as a consequence of the recent agitation of the subject of English instruction in college and preparatory schools. On the one hand, the Faculty of Cornell have resolved that after June, 1894, certificates from schools on that branch shall not be accepted in lieu of entrance examinations, except in the case of schools under the Board of Regents; and as to these the Board ordered, six days later (February 9), that satisfactory teaching in the English language would be required for at least three hours a week during the academic course. Prof. Hart outlines the studies to be pursued in his own department at Cornell.

An Anglo-American correspondent writes:

"When last in England I turned over the sheets of a document in the Public Record office which ought to be better known to Americans than it would appear to be. It is the muster-roll of the regiment of foot under the command of Colonel Elisha Williams, raised for his Majesty's service, for an expedition against Canada, by order of the General Assembly of the Colony of Connecticut, pursuant to his Majesty's directions signified to the same by his Grace the Duke of Newcastle, dated April 9, 1746. The reference to it is, *Original Correspondence, North America, Various No. 1, 1746, No. 7.* Mr. Hubert Hall told me that it was not mentioned by Mr. Parkman. Of the personal history contained in these papers, no better illustration can be given than that which is to be found as to President Cleveland's forefathers. From New London went Edwin Grover and Ebenezer Grover, while Silas Cleveland and First Lieutenant Cleveland also bore their part. The last named was in the sixth company, of which Benjamin Lee was captain, Asa Lothrop second lieutenant, and Nathaniel Ripley ensign. Of the first company, Timothy Bigelow was second lieutenant. The chaplain to the regiment was Parson Woodbridge. Full of the names of Old England settlers, the document in question is a roll-call which has a personal interest for many an American of to-day. Is it really the case that it has never been published?"

—The dangers attending autograph collecting have been recently illustrated in the Washington "Prayers" and the Lenox Library *Burns manuscripts*. Another instance is the Duché MS. recently offered at auction in Philadelphia, and bid in by the owner for $650. The catalogue described it as the "autograph draft of the original [letter], signed and addressed, and is consequently the one from which he [Duché] copied that which was received by Gen. Washington." This MS. was said to have been found in the "Duché papers," and the cataloguer asserts the non-existence of the MS. letter actually received by Washington. After a page and a half of description characteristic of the school of catalogue-stuffers, the compiler expresses the wish that the letter may be incorporated in school histories. Before this is done, we can cordially recommend a school history to the catalogue-maker, for a little study and comparison would have saved him from offering a manuscript that has not a stroke of Duché's pen in it. Furthermore, *the* original, the very MS. sent to Washington, is in the Department of State, where it ought to be, with Washington's letter transmitting it to Congress. Here it was discovered by Mr. Ford some years ago, and was printed in a pamphlet. We have thus a definite basis for judging the Philadelphia MS.

—Hopkinson, whose sister was Duché's wife, states that the original lay on the table of Congress, and "many copies" were taken by the members of that body. Some of these copies found their way to gazettes, and, among others, to Rivington's *Gazette*, from which Sparks took his version, printed in his 'Correspondence of the Revolution.' Sparks gives no notice of the original MS., and there are many variations between the real Duché and Sparks's version. The Philadelphia MS. is, almost word for word and spelling for spelling, identical with Sparks. These variations are serious obstacles to the genuineness of the so-called "draft." Duché always wrote *favour* and *favourable;* but the draft has *favor* and *favorable*. Duché freely used the sign &; the writer of the draft rarely. Duché capitalizes his nouns, and the exceptions are very few; the draft rarely capitalizes them. Duché wrote: "Negotiate for America at the Head of your Army." The "draft" and Sparks say: "Negotiate for your country," etc. The script of the draft has a different slant from the Duché script, and contains fewer corrections than the original, making it improper to describe it as a "draft." The inevitable conclusion is, that, however similar the MS. may on a superficial examination appear to the real Duché, the internal evidence is overwhelmingly against the Philadelphia MS. It is one of the "many copies" made at the time.

—The articles on the servant question which at brief intervals have lately been coming out in the English reviews, seem to emphasize the belief that, sooner or later, some modification will have to be made in conditions of domestic service that are unsatisfactory to employers and employed alike. As a rule, the most suggestive of the papers, though not inconsiderate of the needs of the servant, have been written from the point of view of the householder. Now, however, in the March number of the *Nineteenth Century*, Miss Clementina Black—who, from her position among the working people, as organizer of various of their guilds and associations, is eminently well qualified to speak for them—comes forward on behalf of the young women of the industrial classes to explain why it is that they prefer to domestic service any other occupation, even when more poorly paid and uncomfortably surrounded. It is not because there is anything inherently unpleasant to the damsel of the present age in such service. The gist of the objection to it seems to be (in addition to the low social estimation it involves) the lack of complete personal freedom, at the end of stipulated hours of work—"when all relation ceases between employed and employer"—and the consequent lack of time for friendly companionship. Miss Black's solution of the difficulty is in the line of the coöperative plans proposed by others, although with a difference. Servants must, in her opinion, "cease to be domiciled under the employer's roof, and must, instead, come to work for a specified number of hours, as dressmakers and charwomen already do." For the first woman who will "organize a brigade of really good outdoor servants," a profitable career is waiting. The danger in the plan of the central supply kitchen, advocated by Miss Black's predecessors in the reviews, is the extinction it threatens to the finer culinary instincts which, in spite of modern evolution, still survive in some mistresses of kitchens. Similarly, it is probable that the loss of individuality in the home that is likely to ensue, if

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its care is relegated to hands not solely and directly responsible to its feminine head, will for some time to come be an obstacle to the "outdoor brigade" plan. Whatever the future may have in store in the way of domestic socialism, much improvement might in the meantime be made by putting domestic service on the footing of skilled labor, for which preliminary training is a necessity. The revolution made by training in the social standing of an occupation is amply illustrated by the rapid rise of nursing within the past few years to the rank of a profession. If cooks and housemaids were required to present themselves with certificates of character and efficiency from their training-schools, housekeepers would be relieved of a heavy burden, while a large measure of the freedom and independence insisted on by the noble army of irresponsible and unreliable "help" might safely be granted to them when they could prove the best claim to liberty—the ability to make a proper use of it.

—An interesting contribution to our knowledge of Taine's religious views and practices is made in *Le Protestant* of March 18. The serious way in which he settled the question of the religious education of his children, as compared with Daudet's easy-going fashion, to which attention was recently called in these columns, is shown in the following account of the matter reported in his own language:

"I treat everything in a serious spirit," he said, "and I desired, before intrusting my children to a priest, to find out what he would teach them. I consequently inquired after the catechism most in use in the diocese of Paris, and found it to be that of the Abbé Gaume. At once I bought a copy, and my wife and I read it together from one end to the other. But there were there affirmations so opposed to the spirit and essentials of modern culture that we judged it impossible to subject the minds of our children to such instruction. We therefore decided to put them under the care of a Protestant pastor. For a long time I had been accustomed to read Reuss's Bible in my family, and that had made me respect Protestantism."

This, of course, is far from saying that Taine would have called himself a Protestant, or even a Christian; and Pastor Holland, who preached the funeral discourse, was careful not to claim him as a convert. Yet he was able to say, standing in a Protestant pulpit:

"That we are here is due not only to the desire of the widow and children, but to the wish of the deceased, clearly expressed in the will which he made before the fatal turn of his illness. . . . Though M. Taine did not explicitly accept Christian belief, yet, among all the forces which sway the soul, Christianity was more and more in his eyes the greatest. 'It is that,' he wrote, 'which still furnishes four hundred millions of creatures with wings to bear them beyond their narrow horizons, to carry them, by means of purity and goodness, beyond the pain of self-sacrifice.'"

—In the Magazine of the Historical Society of the Imperial University of Tokio for January, 1893, there is a very interesting article on the seals used by Japanese in Roman Catholic times, A. D. 1542–1637. Among Japanese the seal is as much used for signature as the autograph with pen and ink is in Western countries. Far beyond the usage of those who were really Christians or missionary converts, Roman letters were employed as sword ornaments, seals, and shop signs. The researches that are now being made by Japanese scholars in the papers of the old military families and local seats of authority show this clearly. One such seal, much used by one Otomo in the Fukuoka prefecture, who was baptized in 1579, shows an oval a little over an inch in the longer diameter, with floral decoration in the border, and with Roman letters in the centre quite worn by use. Of the second seal figured by the writer, belonging to one Kuroda Norétaka, baptized and called Simeon, there is a cross significant of his belief. Whether "Simeon," who was a daimio, was a genuine convert or not we do not know, for no impression of this seal appears among his own miscellaneous papers. In 1589 he gave his fief to his son Nagamasa, and in 1593 shaved his head in token of renunciation of the world, or of active life, and took the name of Joshi, meaning "like water." His son, Nagamasa, on the 7th of February, 1613, signed his name and used this seal. This use of the seal was probably because it was a curious thing. The third seal figured by the Japanese antiquarian is that of Hosokawa Tadaoki, whose name is spelt with Roman characters, and is found in a letter to one Kodama, August, 1614. The wife of the owner of this seal was a devout Roman Catholic, but her husband, who used the seal, was not; and so she is praised in the edifying letters of the Fathers, while he is not. The use and owner of the fourth seal are not clearly known. It is found on a receipt used in December, 1556. Now Francis Xavier was in Kioto in 1551, but after fifteen days of ill success returned to Yamaguchi. Vila, however, came to Kioto later and organized a church. This last seal seems to prove that some seeds sown by Xavier in and around Kioto soon came to fruitage, and that Roman letters got into restricted use quite early. Here is a clear case of one instance of a seal twenty-four years before the baptism of the first prominent man of official rank, Otomo. The Japanese writer also mentions a number of other seals which he has discovered in the papers of the sixteenth century; but the use, ownership, and graphic designs not being clear, he does not speak at length of them. These relics of Portuguese Christianity are but a few of the remarkable number that have been accumulated by the researches of Japanese at home, in Mexico, and in Europe. Already the materials of an interesting volume on Japano-Roman Christianity are at hand and await the literary artist.

—The same magazine contains a translation into Japanese of a most interesting letter, found in the French archives, of the date of our Revolutionary war. It was discovered by the French Minister in London, who presented a copy to the Japanese Legation, and the translation has been made by Dr. Mitsukuri, a graduate of Johns Hopkins University. It is to the effect that England and Russia would make alliance to invade Japan. Capt. Cook is to land in Kamtchatka, collect information about navigation, ports, and harbors; inspect the ships necessary for the invasion; give all necessary information to Russia; take out a large company of English ship and other carpenters, and also carry Russian artisans to England to be trained in shipbuilding. If successful, Russia is to help England with vessels to open Japanese harbors, to develop trade, etc. England is to make alliance with Russia, and if necessary assist her in war with Germany. Many facts were furnished by Mr. Scherer, then in the educational department of Russia. It is further stated that the Emperor then ruling Japan had pacified the troubles between the Buddhist priests and his statesmen, and to show his power had built large palaces and enlarged fortifications. The Russian Government was educating students at Irkutsk for her navy, and these cadets were to be utilized in the invasion of Kamtchatka. Fourteen thousand Cossacks had been within a few years sent into Siberia, and many Russian sailors and naval men were available for the proposed invasion. Russian ships which had recently been sent into Japanese waters had picked up foundered Japanese sailors, seized others near the shore, and had sent them to Irkutsk to teach the Japanese language to Russian naval cadets, and to become Russian officers. Various other historical details are given, while the comments of Dr. Mitsukuri show a close knowledge of European history.

—As matter of fact, he says, through the English papers, we know that in 1776, July 12th, Capt. Cook was sailing from Plymouth for Otaheite, California, and the North, which would mean also navigation to Kamtchatka. The Russians at this time seemed to have a purpose of occupying California and also certain Japanese islands. The French plan was to head off this scheme by sending the Japanese Shogun a letter, with a present of timber, iron, and arms, and to notify the Japanese to guard against the Russians. One Russian gentleman who was thoroughly in favor of opening Russian trade with Japan, believed that the Japanese would not be refractory, and, having received a pass from the Russian Emperor, he felt sure that it could be used in Corea and Japan. It is Dr. Mitsukuri's opinion that it was Russia's purpose to make those descents upon Japan which only a generation or so later were made, but which, on account of the Japanese being on their guard and prepared, ended disastrously for the Russians. The alleged alliances between Great Britain and Russia, and the plans of conquest, were wrecked first by the outburst of war between Turkey and Russia, but still more by the revolt of the United States. When Great Britain attempted to hire 20,000 Russian soldiers to fight against the Americans, it is probable that this plan of campaign against Japan was even more fully elaborated. But this plan became known to the Spanish Minister, then in London, who told it to the French Minister, who, on the 15th of September, 1776, sent notice of the threatened alliance to the Minister of Foreign Affairs. On August 14 the French Minister at Moscow wrote that the English Minister was to depart from the Russian capital some time before, but his departure had been postponed for some special reason, and that he was daily in consultation with the Russian office on some important matter. Writing to the French Minister in London, he said: "The alliance seems incredible, but it is possible." The subject, which has an interesting touch with American history, is to be continued in the next number.

—The occurrence of diamonds in the meteoric iron of Cañon Diablo, Arizona, which was announced by Dr. Foote of Philadelphia a few months ago, and concerning which considerable doubt was expressed by scientists the world over, seems to be confirmed through the minute researches of Friedel of Paris, to whom specimens were submitted for examination. The foreign bodies contained in the iron, to which a hardness of diamond had been ascribed, were determined chemically, optically, and by burning to be virtual "carbonados." This discovery sustains the earlier announcements of Yerofeieff and Latchinoff and of Weinschenk regarding the association of diamonds with the meteorites of Novo-Urei and Arva. No satisfactory explanation of the association is as yet possible, but it seems indubitable that the diamond particles were formed coincidently with the solidification of the enclosing magma. The doubt may, however,

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suggest itself to some that not all so-called meteorites are truly such, and that more than ordinary caution for a proper discrimination is now necessary, since it has been shown, as in the case of the famous Ovifak and basaltic irons of Greenland, that the presence of the Widmannstättian figures is not an absolute criterion of meteoritic structure. The specimens of the Ovifak iron brought back by the late expedition of the Philadelphia Academy of Natural Sciences, in their intimate association with an adhering basalt, practically place beyond question their telluric origin, and give to them the position to which they were doubtfully assigned by Steenstrup. A nearly similar position seems to be held by the recently discovered "meteoritic" stones of the São Francisco district, Brazil, and possibly a critical investigation of surroundings may throw doubt upon the genuineness of other meteorites, especially when these are associated with a region of volcanic activity, past or present.

THE MOTHER OF THE SALVATION ARMY.

The Life of Catherine Booth, the Mother of the Salvation Army. By F. de L. Booth-Tucker. 2 vols. *Fleming H. Revell Co.*

MOST of the thirteen hundred pages contained in these bulky volumes are indistinguishable from the vast mass of memorial literature in which the piety of the commonplace living has pathetically sought to canonize the commonplace dead. There is the same unctuous effusiveness, struggling, by means of vehement iteration and exaggerated emphasis, to produce effects attainable only by the skill of the trained artist. There is the same commingling of the sacred and the profane, the holy and the vulgar; the same wearisome use of worn-out religious metaphor and trite religious hyperbole; the same straining to force the reluctant spirit up to an unnaturally high pitch of religious emotion. The theme is of intense and eternal sadness, but it is only on special occasions and by special hands that it can be appropriately treated. For most of us, outside of immediate acquaintances, a speedy and complete oblivion is the natural due, and a printed memoir avails no more to secure the dead a place among the living than the spices and cerements of the ancient Egyptians.

But while this book as the memoir of an individual has the defects of its class, the connection of its subject with the "Salvation Army" gives it a general interest. *Humani nil alienum* is the motto of the student of mankind. As physiology finds no appreciable difference between the bone and flesh, the muscles and nerves, of human beings, no matter what their rank, so all scientific anthropology implies the doctrine of human equality. For its purposes the exhibition of emotion or volition among the poor is of coördinate importance with their display among the rich. Such a movement as that resulting in the Salvation Army may be ridiculous to the "respectable" and disgusting to the refined; but it is a display of human nature upon so large a scale as to command attentive scrutiny. In many obvious respects it resembles the well-known phenomenon, the "revival of religion"; but its magnitude and its duration, its methods and its organization, indicate the presence of special causes.

"We have seen," says Macaulay, "an old woman, with no talents beyond the cunning of a fortune-teller, and with the education of a scullion, exalted into a prophetess and surrounded by tens of thousands of devoted followers, many of whom were, in station and knowledge, immeasurably her superiors; and all this in the nineteenth century; and all this in London." The example is employed to illustrate the truth that in knowledge of the supernatural no progress is possible. In every age there will be sceptics insisting with more or less earnestness that, since God and a future state are either non-existent or unknowable, it is folly to speculate about them; and in every age there will be fierce rebellions against this constraint upon the human spirit, and vehement assertions of an intuitive capability in faith that transcends all experience. We confess that Macaulay seems to us to press his case somewhat too hard. In so far as particular impositions have been detected and exposed, the field of credulity and superstition has been narrowed. But in the capacity and disposition to believe without scientific proof, it may be doubted if mankind has greatly changed under civilization; and a very pretty argument might be constructed demonstrating that where scepticism becomes prevalent among a people, that people is doomed by natural selection to decay. When danger ceases to fascinate and adventure to attract mankind; when no one cares to explore Africa or to seek the North Pole; when we have dismissed all ill-founded hopes and unreasonable fears—then, perhaps, but not till then, shall we see human feeling and human thought and human life ordered without reference to the possibility of a hereafter or the existence of a deity.

If, then, religion be in its essence of the emotions rather than of the reason, the rise of the great mendicant orders, with which the Salvation Army is to be classed, is not strange. Granting the position of the Church that eternal woe awaits every mortal who does not accept the atonement of the Saviour, the placid demeanor of the beneficed clergy and their disciples necessarily forces the enthusiastic believer to protest. Propositions that should affect the hearer with the most dreadful apprehensions or arouse in him the liveliest joy and gratitude, are read in tranquil tones and with unimpassioned manner to a tranquil and impassive audience. It is a commonplace of psychology that emotions are aroused by their physical accompaniments and extinguished by the suppression of these external manifestations. But a preacher who sheds tears over the condition of lost souls, or a congregation that groans with contrition or shouts with joy over redeeming grace, is looked upon askance in all established churches. *Pas de zèle* might be taken as their maxim. It is said that a century ago Crabbe, the poet, was actually remonstrated with for introducing heaven and hell into his sermons. "Sir," said Butler to Wesley, "this pretending to extraordinary revelations and gifts of the Holy Spirit is a horrid thing—a very horrid thing!" Whatsoever things are decorous, whatsoever things are proper, whatsoever things are in good taste—these are the essentials of established religion.

It was the deadening effect of this formalism that roused the wrath of Luther and caused Loyola to institute the Society of Jesus. It was the spiritual sloth of the English parochial clergy that led to the practical secession of Wesley and the organization of the Methodist sect; and it was the development of formalism in this sect that led to the Salvation Army. Mrs. Booth was not an educated woman, but she had more than the education of a scullion, while her talents were evidently of a high order. She had no literary gift—it is impossible to read through the reports of her addresses; but she had the power of plain and forcible speech, she must have had an attractive presence and a moving voice, and she was a religious enthusiast. Her father was a Methodist preacher, her mother was a convert to Methodism, and she was brought up in a very hotbed of fanaticism. Her mother lost three of her five children—fine, promising boys. So intense was her faith that this loss was to her a positive joy, and Mrs. Booth declared that "she never heard her thank the Lord for anything so fervently as for this." "Ah, Kate," she used to say, "I would not have them back for anything." But she was not invulnerable. What to ordinary mortals were the most appalling of bereavements did not afflict her, but she was broken down with sorrow over the spiritual torpor of her husband. It does not appear that he in any way neglected his family or lost his affection for his wife, but he neglected the prayer-meeting and became indifferent to the welfare of his soul; and grief over his backsliding—happily not of life-long duration—darkened her whole existence.

Such a mother as this of course prohibited to her daughter the reading of fiction, and banned the French language as the vehicle of infidelity and impurity. Catherine was brought up upon religious books, and read the Bible through eight times before she was twelve years old. At that age she was actively interested in the cause of total abstinence, and felt a heavy responsibility for the manifold wickedness of this world. She looked with profound pity upon all who were outside the pale of Methodism, and rejected her first lover because of his worldliness; but it was not until after a six-weeks' struggle at the age of sixteen that she became positively assured of her own salvation, concerning which she seems to have had no subsequent doubts. It was after this that her eyes became opened to the spiritual deadness of the Methodist Church, and it is evident that she was destined to assert herself as a leader as soon as the opportunity came. In consequence of her sympathy with the schismatics of 1850, she was "cast out of the synagogue," and for a while rejoiced in her supposed escape from an atmosphere of "formality and worldliness" to one of intense spirituality. It was at this juncture that she met her future husband, whose history closely resembled her own. He had formerly quitted the Church of England for the Methodists, and now, finding that his talents as an exhorter were hampered in this Laodicean organization, he joined the seceders. A marked agreement in opinion and congeniality of disposition quickly led to a union, which seems to have but increased the fervor of both these enthusiastic natures, although the dominating influence was apparently that of the wife.

The seceders from Methodism not turning out to be congenial, and a contemplated connection with the Congregationalists proving abortive, the Booths decided to cast in their lot with the Methodist New Connexion, a sect of some antiquity but of youthful fervor. Here for a season Mr. Booth was in his element. His ideal was a life

> "Where congregations ne'er break up
> And Sabbaths have no end";

and so long as he was allowed to roam from place to place, and to conduct one revival after another, he was contented. Not so, however, with his brethren of the New Connexion. A distinguished American professor of theology, who judiciously hardened his callow pupils to the irreverence which they were sure to encounter in the world by the propædeutical narration of various well-chosen anecdotes, oc-

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casionally referred to an incident assigned, we believe, to the camp-meeting at Martha's Vineyard. The managers applied to a "revivalist" of some renown for the terms upon which he would come and labor with them during the camp-meeting season, and got the business-like answer, "I will come for two hundred and fifty dollars for the first hundred converts, and a dollar a head for all beyond that." But the managers refused these terms. "They were afraid," said the professor, "that they might all be converted." So the number of Mr. Booth's converts startled his fellow-ministers, and when the number was computed to average twenty-three a day, they felt towards him as some of the Apostles did towards Paul, that he labored too abundantly. He was required to confine himself to the work of a pastorate, and, with the hearty support of his wife, he refused to be so limited. She had herself become an active evangelist, and the twain started upon the independent mission that was to extend so widely. It was not till 1878, however, that the title of The Salvation Army was adopted by the order. For a time there was a show of maintaining a republican form of government, but even these slight constitutional trammels were found inconvenient, and eventually, by a kind of peaceable *coup d'état*, a despotism was publicly declared. So far as is known, the sovereign power resides in the Booth family and is to be transmitted by descent. At present all of the offspring of Mr. and Mrs. Booth, with their husbands and wives, appear to be associated in the government; and portraits of them all adorn this volume.

As we have said, we have here the genesis of a mendicant order. The condition of the poor has generally furnished the stimulus to the founders of these orders, and it was so in this case. Religion, to adapt Coleridge's apothegm, was to be not only popularized but plebificated. It was not the righteous but sinners that were to be called to repentance, and the call must be of a nature to be obeyed. If ordinary music does not prevail, let the fife and the bass-drum be tried. If a single preacher is disregarded, let processions go forth. If men will not do, try women also. If ordinary speech and garb and demeanor are of no effect, let there be shouting and dancing, with some semblance of military costume. The attention must at all events be roused and the emotions excited, and the preacher can then move his audience as he wills. There is no reply to be made to Mrs. Booth when she contends that strong feeling cannot be maintained without external manifestation.

> "How utterly unphilosophical," she exclaims, "is the prevailing notion that persons can be deeply moved on religious subjects, any more than on worldly ones, without manifesting their emotions! This insane idea has done more, I doubt not, to grieve the spirit of God and discourage and extinguish vital religion than almost anything else. . . . The cold, formal services of the Protestant Church have done more to shut out from it the sympathy and adhesion of the masses than any other cause, or, indeed, than all other causes put together. . . . Why not allow a manifestation of feeling? . . . When the Lord comes to His Temple and fills it with His glory, you won't know what to do. You must find vent somewhere, or you will be as the poor old negro said he was, 'ready to burst his waistcoat.'"

It is to a certain extent true that Englishmen pride themselves upon controlling their feelings, and look down upon races that display emotional excitement and indulge in violent gesticulation. But this impassive demeanor is, perhaps, rather an ideal of the upper classes than a racial characteristic. It is a mark of good breeding, but conformity to such standards does not appeal to the common people, and the regulation of religious earnestness according to the canons of polite society has produced schism after schism in the Protestant Church. Quakers, Methodists, Hardshell Baptists, Salvationists—all owe their origin to the same impulse. The latest movement has undoubtedly been helped in England by the wave of sentimentalism that has attended the advent of democracy, and that will scarcely spend itself without thoroughly pauperizing the substratum of society. But what has helped the Salvation Army by furnishing the sinews of war will eventually retard its progress. The judicious investment and expenditure of great sums of money requires different gifts from those of the revivalist, and in its turn the Salvation Army, like other great orders, will stiffen into formalism as inevitably as the most fiery lava, when its course is run, stiffens into stone.

We are tempted to point out certain other similarities in this religious movement to those that have preceded it, but we shall only remark that its leaders display the qualities that belong, perhaps of necessity, to religious autocrats. Tolerance is not to be expected of prophets. He that is assured of divine guidance and inspiration will not submit to be thwarted by human folly. Those who criticise the methods of the Salvation Army meet in this book with the apostolic imprecation upon Alexander the coppersmith. It was envy and the narrowest bigotry on the part of the New Connexion that drove the Booths to secede; but seceders from the Salvation Army are denounced as Judases, and the quick judgments that have overtaken them are exultantly chronicled. Rival organizations are viewed with jealousy and disfavor, and the patronage of the Church of England is declined. Such displays of the baser emotions are not agreeable, but little success in ruling human beings is to be had by any one without pushing others aside; and the creation of the Salvation Army is as much an achievement in the art of governing mankind as is the establishment of an empire.

"PHILANTHROPY" ON HORSEBACK.

On Sledge and Horseback to Outcast Siberian Lepers. By Kate Marsden. Cassell Publishing Co.

ANYTHING more absolutely devoid of literary merit, grammar, or claim to attention from the intelligent public than this volume, it would be hard to find. The slender story is told twice, in some cases three times, and consists chiefly in the narration of such petty details of travel as would be likely to impress a dull person unacquainted with even the rudiments of life in the country traversed. The interstices are filled up with piety as little interesting as the "adventures." These need to be scrutinized in the light of an article published in the St. Petersburg *Grazhdanin* (Nos. 92-96, April 1-5, 1892), from the pen of Special Commissioner Sergius M. Petroff, the official who accompanied Miss Marsden on the trip from Yakutsk to Viluisk and back, commanded the expedition, translated every word she heard, took all the measurements (inside and out) of the leper huts, made the drawings, etc., and saw more lepers than she did. That Miss Marsden is acquainted with Mr. Petroff's refutation of nearly every one of her statements is inferrible from the fact that she has omitted one or two of the most imaginative, which have appeared in Russian and English versions of her tale, preliminary to the issue of her book.

We pass over the bid for the sympathy of teetotalers, in the preface, with the remark that Miss Marsden's memory seems not to serve her with regard to the bottle of champagne she shared with Bishop Miletie in Yakutsk. If she would but tell us the full story of the peculiar way in which Prince Dolgorukoff was "working among his friends" in Moscow for her; of the affair with Dr. Streltzeff; of the way in which her folding-bed was set up for her every night, and the single room at the posting-stations all the way across Siberia reserved for her exclusive use, instead of her being obliged to sleep on the "hard, dirty floor and dirty sheepskins," as she states, her narrative of travel before she reached Yakutsk would gain in piquancy. That she did give tea and sugar to persons on the way is a fact. There are witnesses to prove that she gave two lumps of sugar and a little screw of tea to each of the well-fed inmates of a certain asylum, and one dollar to a large party of prisoners encountered on the road. Whether she carried in her sledge and distributed the many thousand copies of the Gospel which she mentions (she puts the number at exactly nine thousand in one of her Russian stories), those can judge who know the space occupied by cheap Testaments.

In Irkutsk Miss Marsden was provided with all the information about the lepers and the plans for the leper colonies which she now conveys to the public as the result of her journey. It had been sent to the Governor-General of Irkutsk and by him forwarded to St. Petersburg a year and a half before her journey, having been collected by the Yakutsk officials, approved by the Provincial Sanitary Committee, and even published in the Government journal months before her arrival. The boat on the Lena, on which she suffered more "hardships," was of the sort which all officials and merchants prefer to all other modes of conveyance to Yakutsk, owing to its cheapness ($15-$25 for 1,700 miles) and the comfortable accommodations provided under the waterproof deck. In Yakutsk she was shown specimens of the "herb" which she adopted as the plausible excuse for her trip, and was told (what had been known all over Europe long before) that it was worthless as a cure for leprosy. She says that she could gain "no definite information as to the curative or alleviating properties" of the root. Nevertheless, she continued to court "hardships" with the assiduity of a commercial traveller with a keen eye to business, and persisted in going on to Viluisk. She complains of the wretched yourts where they occasionally passed the night on their way thither, and of being compelled to sleep in the open air. To this, Mr. Petroff replies, that, as Miss Marsden was accustomed to the comfort of the best hotels, she was naturally surprised at these yourts, though the Russians preferred them when good, and that this remark of hers, unexplained, would lead to false conclusions among the Russian reading public, who are well acquainted with the life of the Russian peasant, which Miss Marsden is not. Miss Marsden had a tent to herself all the way, and, from Viluisk on, it was the magnificently constructed tent of the *ispravnik*, three-ply, impervious to rain and heat. When the party camped, it was surrounded by a thick screen of young, freshly-cut fir-trees, within ten minutes of their arrival, by the Yakuts who accompanied them, and by those who had assembled out of curiosity, on the news of their coming, at the previously appointed halting-

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places, though Miss Marsden would have us believe that the road was unknown. Miss Marsden complains that she could never undress herself during the two months of her journey. Mr. Petroff replies that her folding-bed, mattress, coverlet always sewed in clean sheets, pitcher, basin, brushes, combs, sponges, bags of clothes and other necessaries, were carried into her tent every day; that she had full opportunity to undress and rest; that she did, as a matter of fact, put on her best gown on several occasions, which he specifies; that she could have done so every day; and that the linen of the expedition, including Miss Marsden's, was washed four times during the two months at specified places.

Again, Miss Marsden complains of the food; in several Russian and English accounts she went so far as to state that she had eaten nothing but tea and a sort of hard toast of sour black bread (*tcherniya sukhari*) during the whole two months. Mr. Petroff declares that Miss Marsden brought from Irkutsk bouillon, potted roast beef, reindeer tongues, dried vegetables for soup, prepared coffee, condensed milk, etc. In Yakutsk he bought raisins by the box, prunes, and seedless grapes in sufficient quantities. They had also buckwheat, wheat, and manna groats, pearl barley, prepared mustard, spirits, and cognac. "She never put a bit of black *sukhar* in her mouth," could not even eat the ordinary wheaten *sukhar*, and accordingly dainty ones were prepared for her alone at the best confectioners' in Yakutsk from extra imported flour. As some of these acquired the taste of the leather bags in which they were carried, and Miss Marsden could not eat them, a fresh supply of her delicate bread was made for her in Viluisk. Moreover, in regard to the complaint of lack of meat, Mr. Petroff says that they bought fresh meat and game wherever possible until they arrived at Viluisk. After leaving Viluisk, until their return, the Cossacks, Yakuts, and medical man killed such an abundance of ducks and black cock that their stomachs eventually revolted at "toujours perdrix," and they had fresh meat at every halt in abundance. It is not surprising that Mr. Petroff should exclaim: "Does she really believe what she has written of this journey?" We may join in his wonder. She had pacing horses provided for her—and pacers are rare—since she could not have ridden a dozen fathoms on an ordinary horse.

Mr. Petroff denies most positively that they ever found a dead leper in any house among the sick, or even one near to death; that any lepers ever offered Miss Marsden their repulsive food, or that she controlled herself to the extent of eating it. On the contrary, he states plainly that she was so overcome by the sight of the first leper that he and the medical man begged her not to remain with the invalids more than half an hour at each spot. Mr. Petroff, however, after enforcing this rule, for her health, rode ahead on each occasion and remained two or three hours behind—easily catching up afterwards—to make the detailed examination for her. The lepers told him that they lacked nothing. Their friends and the communities supply them with the same food which they use themselves, and in proper quantities. When there is no leper sufficiently strong to nurse the helpless, the community hires one from another district, paying him up to seven rubles a month, so that they are not neglected, as Miss Marsden states. (The "boots" in a St. Petersburg hotel, by the way, gets four rubles a month, out of which he clothes himself and furnishes his brushes and blacking.) In one place twenty-two lepers own twenty cows and a bull. Other settlements are equally well off. Contrary to Miss Marsden's assertion, the Yakuts of this region are great cattle breeders, the arable land and fodder grasses being absolutely phenomenal. This is of a piece with her more general information. "But you could never reckon up all her mis-statements!" exclaims Mr. Petroff at last, in despair.

The common sense of the matter is this: Russia is amply able and willing to take care of the sixty-six lepers over whom this disproportionate fuss and self-advertisement has been wasted, in a manner thoroughly insulting to Russia. Enough money has been collected already to do all or nearly all that is required, according to a recent statement of Bishop Miletie of Yakutsk, who also announces that three of the nuns who went from Moscow, lavishly provided with money, clothing, and materials in the piece, are quite sufficient for the dirty work of tending the lepers, which it forms no part of Miss Marsden's own programme to undertake in person. The proportions in which the sums collected are expended may be judged from one instance. Mr. Sievers of Irkutsk gave 2,000 rubles. Miss Marsden spent nearly one-third (600 r.) on her own journey and 1,400 on supplies for the sixty-six lepers. (See *Siberian Messenger*, *Eastern Review* of Irkutsk, and the *Day*, St. Petersburg, July 24, 1892.) What, then, is the motive of Miss Marsden's contemplated trip to America, and of her book? Ready answer could be found in a mass of articles about her published during the past three years by the press of New Zealand, where Miss Marsden spent a number of years previous to 1889, when this Siberian leper hunt was planned, and where she is thoroughly understood. To be precise we will name, among many, the *New Zealand Mail* of December 9 and December 16, 1892; the Wellington *Evening Post*, July 17, 1890; February 20, 1891; December 10, 1892; the Wanganui *Chronicle*, December 19, 1892; the Christchurch *Weekly Press*, September 24, 1891; the Oamaru *Mail*, November 26, 1892.

The "A. L. A." Index: An Index to General Literature—Biographical, Historical, and Literary Essays and Sketches, Reports and Publications of Boards and Societies dealing with Education, Health, Labor, Charities and Correction, etc., etc. By Wm. I. Fletcher, A.M., Librarian of Amherst College, with the coöperation of many Librarians. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

MR. FLETCHER and his disinterested colleagues in a work which it was worth while to begin in some fashion, must have prepared themselves for fault-finding proportionate to the diversity of the field covered or within the scope of the Index. No one critic could point out all the deficiencies and inconsistencies, and each would bring to bear examples drawn from his special knowledge. If we perforce join the ranks of those who dwell more on the shortcomings of the undertaking than on the merit of those engaged in it, it is from a simple desire to repair the former in future supplements.

We begin, then, with the fundamental test of selection, and remark that Col. Malleson's 'Ambushes,' which is technical in character, is taken, while his more general treatises 'Battles of India,' 'Battlefields of Germany,' and 'Studies from Genoese History' are omitted. In general literature, we miss the works of J. M. Robertson, 'Modern Humanists' and 'Essays toward a Critical Method'; Henley's 'Essays'; George Moore's 'Impressions and Opinions'; George Barnett Smith's 'Poets and Novelists.' One is glad to have Morley's 'Critical Miscellanies,' but regrets the loss of his other collective works, 'Studies in Literature' and 'Diderot and the Encyclopædists.' If Donald G. Mitchell's 'Wet Days' provides food for the zealous inquirer, why do not his 'English Lands, Letters, and Kings,' 'Seven Stories,' 'About Old Story-Tellers'? Why should Stebbing's 'Verdicts of History' find a place in the Index and not his equally worthy 'Some Reviewers Reviewed'? Plutarch's 'Lives' should not have been discriminated against in favor of Diogenes Laertius's 'Lives of the Greek Philosophers'; nor De Morgan's 'Paradoxes' in favor of Paget's.

A work intended to aid serious students or others besides Chautauquans and small libraries should take account of Abel's 'Linguistic Essays,' Benn's 'Greek Philosophers,' Blackie's 'Horæ Hellenicæ,' Gardner's 'New Chapters in Greek History,' Jebb's 'Attic Orators,' Nettleship's 'Essays in Latin Literature,' and Sellar's 'Roman Poets of the Augustan Age,' among writings upon classical literature. Scientific literature is but scantily represented. Perhaps the Index could not be expected to embrace the very valuable series of monographs edited by J. Borden Saunderson under the title, 'Foreign Biological Memoirs,' but Tait's 'Recent Advances in Physical Sciences' would seem to fall within its scope. In the line of more popular reading we should have looked for Johnson's 'Lives of the Poets,' Piper's 'Lives of the Leaders of the Church Universal,' Cesareseo's 'Italian Characters,' Ward's 'Reign of Victoria,' Gilbert Scott's 'Lectures on Architecture.'

The poverty of good sources of information is shown by the references under Amerigo Vespucci. All that the indexers have found concerning the discoverer are: Frost's 'Half Hours with Early Explorers,' O'Murray's 'Catholic Pioneers,' Vogel's 'Century of Discovery'—of which we may say that not one is of value to anybody studiously minded. Again, too many antiquated authorities are used. If Belknap's 'American Biography' is worth indexing, then Eliot, Knapp, and certainly Sparks's 'Library of American Biography' should appear. Levi Woodbury's writings are hardly of living importance. It would have been more to the purpose to have Gallatin's, or even George Washington's.

The subject-references in many cases fail to convey much meaning, and some of them may almost be classed among the humors of indexing. Under "Honor" is a reference to "Honor due to all men" (apparently a sermon), while the entry, "Invalid," in Payne's 'Private Views,' proves to be a trifle on Invalid Literature. The compilers have in many instances lost sight of their proper function. Many works are analyzed which might properly be called non-indexable; for example: Adams's 'New Departure' and 'Chapters of Erie,' Cozzens's 'Dr. Bushwhacker,' Lady Barker's 'Travelling Abroad,' Dilke's 'Greater Britain,' Brooke's 'Seven Months' Run,' Fairbanks's 'Aguecheek,' John Fiske's 'Tobacco and Alcohol,' and George Augustus Sala's 'America Revisited.' We should have just as much right to expect Bonvalot's 'Across Asia,' or Cooke's 'Old Touraine' and a thousand others, to be indexed as Lady Barker's or Sala's travels.

The abbreviations used are not irreproachable. Some of the more objectionable are Bunce, Bach. bluff.; Boyd, Aut. holid.; Dodge, 12 miles; Fliedner, Praying and w.; Gilfillan, 1st gall.; Gladden, Appl. x'ty (for Applied Christianity); Gurney, Tertium; Mitchell, Bound

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toge.; Oxford move.; Trench, Lec. medieval; Whittier, Lit. recre. When we add that in our opinion the next edition of the A. L. A. Index should take cognizance of the United States census reports as well as the Labor and Charity reports of the several States incorporated in the present edition, we conclude our ungracious task, and place the volume on the shelf beside Poole's Index—the latter a more successful, but also, let us freely admit, a far less difficult, enterprise.

A Guide to the Paintings of Florence, being a complete historical and critical account of all the Pictures and Frescoes in Florence, etc., etc. By Karl Karoly. George Bell & Sons.

How far cramming, beyond the degree allowed by Murray and Baedeker, will help the tourist to understand the Italian Renaissance, can only be ascertained by experiment, but Karl Karoly's experiment does not contribute to the solution of the problem. To succeed in such an undertaking, one might go to work in two different methods, viz., to study art and the opinions of the most thoughtful critics until one had acquired that comparative breadth of judgment which is the result only of large culture, and then venture to speak *ex cathedra*, taking the risks of it; or to collate all the authoritative opinions and let the reader weigh them together before the work of art, and be responsible for the conclusion. Karl Karoly adopts neither, and falls absurdly between the two stools. His own study of either the pictures or the critics is utterly superficial, and while his judgment of the former is crudely dogmatic, his collation of the latter is absurd. The instruction given on his own account may be fairly judged from a quotation from the description of the well-known "Calumny" of Botticelli. "The female heads are all from the same model, but are painted with variety of expression. The figures are rather too vehement in action. The high finish of every detail, the brilliancy of the light, and accurate distances are especially to be remarked." Discussing the "Fornarina," he says:

"Erroneously ascribed to Raphael. Attributed by all connoisseurs to Sebastiano del Piambo [the form of Piombo to which he adheres throughout, perhaps not knowing that the sobriquet was derived from the piombo, or leaden seal, on his certificate of appointment as painter to the Pope]. . . . The name of Fornarina, as applied to Raphael's mistress, does not occur before the middle of the last century. The history of this person [?] to whom Raphael was attached even to his death is obscure, nor are we *very clear as to her likeness*. This picture, inscribed with the date 1512, is said to represent her; but it bears no resemblance *to the authentic picture* by Raphael, inscribed with his name, and called the Fornarina in the Barbarini Palace in Rome."

Of Verocchio we have in No. 1267 *bis*, "Verocchio, Madonna. The only other painting by him is his Baptism of Christ in the Academy," but in the reference to that picture we are told that it is "his only authentic picture in existence." In reference to this picture the author quotes Richter to the effect that "not merely the angel ascribed to him [Leonardo] by tradition, but also the figures of Christ and of the second angel, as well as the landscape background, are obviously painted in oil, a medium which Leonardo always employed, whereas Verocchio never abandoned his tempera groundwork." It would be impossible to concentrate more inaccuracy regarding the particular picture than is here given, without the least apparent discrimination or disapprobation by the author of the book. The entire picture is painted, so far as it was finished, in the same manner, being laid in in tempera, and finished in transparent oils, as was the custom of most of the painters of that day. The author says that the Gozzoli fresco in the Riccardi palace was painted by lamp-light, the tolerable certainty being that the painting was done before the ceiling was put on, as the room in which the chapel was built is well lighted and the only use of the ceiling was to complete the seclusion of the chapel.

The "quotations from the best authorities" are pitchforked in with more regard for variety than for authority—Horner by the side of Ruskin; Richter and Morelli sometimes and then Crowe and Cavalcaselle—in utter ignorance that "all the connoisseurs" give neither Richter nor Morelli any technical authority whatever, and none of any kind to Horner; that Morelli, while he discredits all the Giorgiones which are accepted by the highest authorities, is always finding new pictures by the master which no one else accepts, and that, in fact, his individual identifications have no weight whatever with those who understand the technics of the Italian schools. Crowe and Cavalcaselle are on the whole the highest authorities we have thus far named, and where they err there is little probability of more secure judgment from other critics, as to questions of authenticity or technics.

The use of any catalogue of this nature is always doubtful, as the changes in the arrangement of the pictures and their numbering throw it quickly out of use. But in any case Karl Karoly's attempt to occupy the place of cicerone is a complete failure, except so far as it indicates the whereabouts of all the pictures in Florence and its immediate vicinity.

Hereditary Genius: An Inquiry into Its Laws and Consequences. By Francis Galton, F.R.S., etc. Second edition. Macmillan & Co. 1892. 8vo, pp. xxvii., 379.

Hereditary Ability is the title Mr. Galton would now prefer to that originally given to his book. When he wrote, it was commonly believed that the human mind had something supernatural in it; that proper directing was what was necessary to make the power of the mind almost unlimited, and that children were born similar in mental ability, subsequent differences being due to surroundings and training. The purpose of the work was the establishment of the fact that individuals inherit different intellectual capacities, and that, no matter what the influences, opportunities, and struggles, nature limits the powers of the mind as definitely as those of the body. On these points, among thinkers everywhere, the author's opinions have prevailed. His book is reprinted much as written more than twenty years ago. To have incorporated a mass of new statistical evidence now available would have necessitated recasting tables and comparisons to such an extent as practically to compel rewriting the whole; this the author would not undertake. Had it been written anew, according to the later preface, some portions should have been greatly changed—for instance, that based on the theory of pangenesis, now set aside, or that relating to variations.

The latter are not here defined as we are used to see them. Two fundamentally distinct conceptions are said to be included in the ordinary use of the word variation: sports and variations properly so called.

"The filial centre falls back further towards mediocrity in a constant proportion to the distance to which the parental centre has deviated from it, whether the direction of the deviation be in excess or in deficiency. All true variations are (as I maintain) of this kind, and it is in consequence impossible that the natural qualities of a race may be permanently changed through the action of selection upon mere variations. The selection of the most serviceable *variations* cannot even produce any great degree of artificial and temporary improvement, because an equilibrium between deviation and regression will soon be reached, whereby the best of the offspring will cease to be better than their own sires and dams.

"The case is quite different in respect to what are technically known as 'sports.' In these, a new character suddenly makes its appearance in a particular individual, causing him to differ distinctly from his parents and from others of his race. Such new characters are also found to be transmitted to descendants. Here there has been a change of typical centre; a new point of departure has somehow come into existence, towards which regression has henceforth to be measured, and consequently a real step forward has been made in the course of evolution. When natural selection favors a particular sport, it works effectively towards the formation of a new species, but the favor that it simultaneously shows to mere variations seems to be thrown away, so far as that end is concerned."

The above brings natural selection more nearly in line with the procedure in artificial selection. It makes evolutionary progress in any direction to depend entirely on the advent of sports, of which the originating causes are still in question. We cannot agree, however, in treating the racial centre, mediocrity, as a fixture so far as all influences other than selection are concerned; or, to put it differently, we cannot admit that all evolution is due to selection.

The views of Lombroso and others in respect to the close relationship between genius in its technical sense and insanity are not fully concurred in by Mr. Galton; yet he admits that his later observations have led in the same direction so much as to surprise him by the frequency of mentally unbalanced relatives among the offspring of the exceptionally able. Persons of extreme mental activity, he says, must often possess brains more excitable and peculiar than is consistent with soundness. Such persons may be crazed at times or may give way completely. Their progeny may be reduced to the irresponsible by inheriting their excitability or other peculiarities with a still smaller proportion of what is more needed in a proper mental balance. Hope for the elevation and improvement of mankind rests on that race in which the natural gifts, bodily, intellectual, and moral, of the most prolific class are above the line of mediocrity. In the history of evolution Mr. Galton finds no reason for doubting that from such a centre another race may be developed as far above the highest now existing as the latter is above the lowest.

The Tuscan Republics (Florence, Siena, Pisa, and Lucca), with Genoa. By Bella Duffy. [Story of the Nations.] G. P. Putnam's Sons.

This book is a disappointment. There are few subjects in the whole range of history more interesting than the Tuscan republics, and the interest is due not only to swift and startling outward events, but to the significance of the political and social evolution of which those events were the symptoms. Nevertheless, with such a theme Miss Duffy has failed to make either an interesting "popular" book or a useful historical manual. We are quite unacquainted with any previous work of hers, so that we can but wonder what qualifications she possessed to justify the editor of this series in raising her into the companionship of Freeman, Vámbéry, George Rawlinson, Mahaffy, Thorold Rogers, Baring-Gould, and other compe-

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tent historical writers who have contributed to the series. Her book, both in style and matter, reminds us of those historical theses prepared by college students who, with a certain aptitude for research and no experience in composition, grind out an unsymmetrical summary of the authorities they have consulted. We have observed no single thought in this volume which disclosed any power on the part of Miss Duffy to think for herself; on the contrary (and this is more serious), she seems not to realize that history is valuable exactly in proportion as it establishes just relations between persons and events, and reveals the fatal evolution of character in peoples as in individuals.

This very history of Florence, for instance, seems but a register of murders and banishments as chaotic as a madman's delirium, unless it be shown what produced them and what they resulted in. Most readers of Miss Duffy's book would fail to see the meaning of each revolution, or how, under different names, Florence gradually passed through all stages of popular government, to sink at last, exhausted, into the power of an acknowledged tyrant. It is because she tried now nobles, and now bourgeois, and now artisans as her rulers that her experience has been so precious to posterity. To maintain an equilibrium among the various elements of a State may be defined as the aim of an ideal government; to show how one element or another encroached and usurped is certainly one of the chief purposes of history. For example, the historian of the United States since the rebellion ought to show how the manufacturing class has really controlled the Government, with the efforts of the other classes to counteract this undue influence. So at Florence, from the twelfth to the sixteenth century, there was a perpetual conflict of classes, and Miss Duffy should have interpreted, point by point, the variations in that conflict. Each of the great Italian communes of the middle age might have taken Dante's line "Libertà va cercando, che è si cara" as its motto, and any adequate account of those communes ought to explain how it was that they fell short of liberty, whether by the greed of one class or the truculence of another, whether by the corrupting influence of a family or by the "personal magnetism" of a demagogue. Merely to relate that in a certain year priors were chosen, and in another year a Council of Nine or of Twenty rose or fell, and that there were so many score of broken heads on each occasion, seems hardly more worthy of serious attention than are the reports of contemporary murders or of "holocausts" in the daily press. The experiment in government of Florence, Pisa, Siena, Genoa, and their sister republics must be treated in the way we have suggested in order to have its true significance appear; treated after Miss Duffy's fashion, the careers of those republics seem as unrelated to the great development of human progress as are the fitful homicidal outbursts in some South American capital.

We regret to have to say this of a book from which we had expected much; but mere study, mere exploration of historical documents, cannot make an historian. We can commend Miss Duff's conscientiousness in both these respects. She is modest, and never puts forth an opinion of her own. Often we can almost hear the French or German writer whom she has consulted speak through her lines. Nevertheless, her book cannot rank with the earlier epitomes of Sismondi and Balbo, or with the recent manual of Hunt. The proof-reading is so bad that we infer that the author could not have seen the proofs. Many excellent views of Italy, with portraits and process reproductions of works of art, serve to remind the reader of a glory and a charm which he might not derive from the text.

Studies in the Civil, Social, and Ecclesiastical History of Early Maryland. By the Rev. Theodore C. Gambrall, A.M., D.D. New York: T. Whittaker. 1893.

UNTIL very recent times, no one of the original thirteen States has been so culpably indifferent to its history as Maryland. McMahon's work, from both the historical and legal points of view one of the ablest books ever produced in this country, was so coldly received that the second volume never saw the light. In the school-books of the last generation, the Boston tea-party was dwelt on with the most circumstantial minuteness, while slight notice or none was taken of the Maryland tea-burning; and the present writer well remembers his earliest historical studies in a book that gave more space to the destruction of the Willey house than to the whole colonial history of Maryland.

Happily, of late years this state of things has changed. The ancient archives of the State, by the wise liberality of the Legislature, are now accessible to students and in process of publication; popular histories have been written, and many special monographs and studies have thrown light upon the most instructive features of a past that was in many respects unique. A pleasant evidence of this historical awakening is given by the book before us, a series of studies of the social and political conditions of the colonial period, originally delivered as lectures before the students of the Maryland Agricultural College.

For such a work Dr. Gambrall is well fitted, not only by his familiarity with the subject, but by the breadth and fairness of his views. A German philosopher has noted the fact that it is impossible for a human being to watch two sparrows fighting in a gutter without taking sides with one or the other sparrow; and, *à fortiori*, that no one can read, much less write, history without becoming to some extent a partisan. In Maryland history we have had too much of this, and too many of the writers on the subject have seemed to hold a brief on one side or the other. This one-sidedness Dr. Gambrall has endeavored to avoid; and even if he has not absolutely divested himself of bias—a state of mind probably impossible, and perhaps undesirable—he certainly shows a fairness which is altogether exemplary. This is well shown in his account of the acts and policy of the founder of the colony, in whom some have seen a man of almost quixotic benevolence and liberality, others a wise and prudent statesman, and others a selfish bigot kept in check only by the force of circumstances. The facts that Cecilius pursued exactly the course that a good and wise man would pursue, that he was firm in his general policy while ready to yield such of his rights as were plainly contrary to the public good, and that his province steadily grew and prospered under his rule, are undisputed; the only question being that of ulterior motives, which is much like disputing about the chorography of the distal surface of the moon.

As the title indicates, these lectures do not undertake to tell the story of Maryland, but discuss consecutive phases of that story. After a general view of English colonization, we have the peculiar constitution of Maryland explained, that colony being made by the charter a small independent kingdom, exempt from the control of King or Parliament, and ruled by the Proprietary and freemen alone. The first foundation, the early legislation, the revolution which took the government from the Proprietary's hands, the changed conditions after its restoration to his grandson, the events which led to the American Revolution, and Maryland's share in that great struggle, all receive due attention.

One or two unimportant oversights we have noticed, as on p. 61, where, misled by Chalmers, Dr. Gambrall states that Maryland was the first colony erected into a province, forgetting the charter of Avalon. Again, on p. 107, he says that it is not known whether Thomas Cornwaleys was Protestant or Catholic, overlooking his remonstrance to the Proprietary on his dealings with the Jesuits, which shows the Captain to have been a zealous Catholic.

A more serious error occurs on p. 35, where the author states that by the charter of Avalon "the freeholders were to be assembled for the making of laws for the province," that the same clause was inserted in the charter of Maryland, and that in the latter colony Cecilius, "on whom the world has been delighted to lavish its praise, attempted so far to limit the privilege of the assembly as to claim the sole initiative in the making of laws." The natural inference is that Cecilius attempted an arbitrary violation of the rights of his colonists, and therefore does not deserve the praise of posterity. Now this is a question of fact, and the facts are that, by the charters of both Avalon and Maryland, the initiative in legislation was given to the Proprietary alone, the freemen having only an advisory and dissentient voice. It was easy to see that this would not work well, and, after brief trial, in which each party rejected the laws of the other, Cecilius conceded the initiative to the people, reserving the veto power to himself. So far from attempting any invasion of the people's rights, he promptly relinquished an important part of his own.

One very surprising statement we find on p. 203, where the author speaks of Maryland's treatment of the Indians as a blot on her fair fame. Certainly we should have thought that if her record were clear on any point, it is that of her dealings with the Indians; and as Dr. Gambrall gives no particulars, we cannot conceive what he has in mind. With all the Southern Indians the colonists lived in unbroken friendship from the very first purchase of land from the "Emperor" of Pascataway and the werowance of Yoacomico: they were taken under the protection of the English, and their safety stipulated for in all treaties. With the more warlike Susquehannoughs there was almost unbroken peace, and treaties ever renewed: the colonists declared them "a bulwark of the northern parts of the province," and built them a fort for their security against the Senecas and Oneidas. The Eastern Shore Indians sometimes gave a little trouble, but nothing of a serious character, and we cannot think what incident in all her dealings with the Indians Maryland has cause to be ashamed of, unless it be the humiliation of the King of Chaptico, who was fined by a manorial court for pig-stealing.

Memorial of Nathaniel Holmes Morison (1815–1890), First Provost of the Peabody Institute (1867-1890). Baltimore. 1892.

Catalogue of the Library of the Peabody Institute of the City of Baltimore. Part V. S–Z. 1892.

THE privately printed Memorial, by a member

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of Dr. Morison's immediate family, is an admirable tribute. Dr. Morison died in November, 1890, a month before reaching his seventy-fifth birthday. To the last he maintained his interest in and relations with the Peabody Institute, with which he had been wholly identified for over twenty years, officially as Provost and practically as Librarian-in-Chief. He did not live to see the appearance in type of the fifth volume of the printed Catalogue of the Institute Library issued during the past year, and completing what is probably the most generally useful and, typographically, the most intelligently displayed index to general literature thus far compiled in this country. The severe discipline of his early years, and his arduous struggle for education at Exeter and Harvard, gave much additional robustness to the natural strength of his New Hampshire inheritance of Scotch-Irish Presbyterian stock. For twenty years he successfully managed a girls' school of no little repute in Baltimore, during which time he had published a few educational works, and had devoted himself to serious studies and to the requirements of a home life rather than to the amenities and exactions of society. He was, therefore, in 1867, when he accepted, at some personal sacrifice, the office of Provost, fully equipped in many ways for the large duties before him, and it is at this time that Dr. Morison's public life properly begins.

The two great services performed by Dr. Morison for the Peabody Institute, although he was active in all things pertaining to his charge, were his energetic and scholarly direction of the purchase of the foundation books of the Library, and his supervision over and large share in the construction of the now-finished Catalogue. The collocation of a large library and the making of an adequate catalogue cannot, in the nature of things, be the achievement of any single person; but, in the case of Provost Morison, so completely did the Library reflect the fineness and firmness of his judgment and his persistent adherence to the high standards established in the selection and purchase of books, that it seems to have absorbed his personality into every working method and policy. Although at first beset with problems of unusual difficulty, chief among them being a continual demand to "popularize" the institution, Dr. Morison seems to have carried his points with almost unvarying success, and the result at the time of his death was a collection of books of permanent value, which have added largely to the intellectual wealth and reputation of the city in which they have found abode. He was singularly fortunate in having the cordial coöperation of the Trustees of the institution.

Of the printed Catalogue we have already once spoken in commendation, and it only remains to say, on the completion of the immense task, that, judged as a whole, it is perhaps the most useful performance of its kind in existence. Careful analysis and indexing have given more practical worth and availability to these 100,000 books than a catalogue constructed upon a pinched and falsely economical plan could possibly give to a library of four times that number. This and Dr. Billings's great Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, much resembling each other in scope and in the striking merits of certain typographical felicities, are worthy monuments of American scholarship as applied to the craft of bibliography.

To able and sympathetic coadjutors in his difficult tasks belongs a generous share of praise, and to them, with characteristic probity, Dr. Morison would be first to make acknowledgments; but to him alone belongs the substantial glory of giving vitality and continuing force to a great institution. It was his constant wish that his deeds should be his fitting monument, and his ambition, perhaps chiefly because it was not a personal one, has been amply realized.

Fratris Iohannis de Serravalle, Ord. Min., Episcopi et Principis Firmani Translatio et Comentum totius Libri Dantis, cum textu italico Fratis Bartholomæi a Colle, ejusdem Ordinis. Prato.

THE student who feels impelled to acquaint himself with John of Serravalle's Latin commentary on the 'Divine Comedy,' recently published at Prato by the order and at the expense of the Pope, will wish that either the Pontiff's munificence or the zeal of the Franciscan editors had been limited. What would have made several volumes of a convenient size is put into the form of a ponderous folio, padded by the addition of the unimportant Italian text of a Fra Bartolomeo da Colle, and by the insertion at the end of each canto of divers edifying essays by the editors on current and other topics, until the whole takes up 1,233 pages. The task of examining the commentary is, however, a pleasant one, both on account of the novelty of the circumstances under which it was written, and because it is almost the last of its kind published or to be published. Only one other of importance, that of Guido da Pisa, still remains in manuscript. When that sees the light, and when the work of sifting and comparing—begun in 1878 by Hegel's concise essay, 'Ueber den historischen Werth der älteren Dante-Commentare,' and greatly advanced by Rocca's recent 'Di alcuni Commenti della Divina Commedia composti nei primi vent' anni dopo la morte di Dante'—is complete, we may at last hope to know what to disregard and what to keep from the enormous mass of partly valueless, partly valuable comment which has been handed down to us from the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries.

The work of John of Serravalle ranks about twelfth in the list by order of chronology, and may be regarded as a granddaughter of Boccaccio's comment, for Benvenuto da Imola was among Boccaccio's audience at Florence in 1373, and John of Serravalle among Da Imola's in Bologna a little later. The writer, Giovanni dei Bertoldi (better known as Giovanni da Serravalle, from his birthplace, a little parish which appertains ecclesiastically to the diocese of Rimini, but forms part of the Republic of San Marino), was a noted Franciscan scholar, preacher, lecturer, and ecclesiastical agent, resident for various terms of years at Bologna, Florence, Rome, at one time Provincial of his order in the Marches, finally Bishop of Fermo, and a not unimportant member of the Council of Constance. In 1416, while the Council was awaiting the result of negotiations with the Anti-Pope, John of Serravalle, whose alert intelligence and good humor seem to have made him popular everywhere, was begged by Cardinal Amidei of Saluzzo, and more especially by two English prelates, Nicholas Bubwith, Bishop of Bath and Wells, and Robert Hallam, Bishop of Salisbury, to translate Dante's great poem into Latin, and to write on it a commentary in the same tongue, for the instruction and entertainment of those of the Council who were not Italians. This great task, begun and completed within a twelvemonth, is a fitting type of the eager ambition and incessant activity of men's minds in the early fifteenth century; and though the Bishop of Fermo's translation is by no means extraordinary, and his commentary the simplest sort of exposition, the reader can scarcely help noticing in them both a freshness and breadth of mind distinctly unmediæval. Throughout, too, one finds with pleasure traces of Serravalle's good humor and popularity. Florence, for instance, he declares, is by no means as bad as Dante painted it (pp. 176, 58), nor are the Bolognese by nature avaricious (p. 231).

But the chief interest in the commentary for English readers is that in it is the only bit of evidence that can possibly be cited for what Englishmen sometimes try hard to believe—that Dante studied at Oxford, or at least visited it. That such was the case was maintained by Dean Plumptre some years ago, with Mr. Gladstone's recent approval, in an article in the *Nineteenth Century* for last June, in which, assuming that Dante visited every place he spoke of, he endeavored to show that those places in Northern Europe which Dante mentioned were the necessary stages in a journey to England. Once in England, says Mr. Gladstone, his destination could have been none other than Oxford, whither he went "to refresh his thirst by a fast-swelling fountain-head of knowledge, and to imp the wings by which he was to mount, and mount so high that few have ever soared above him into the empyrean of celestial wisdom." Aside from this alleged antecedent probability, the testimony for Dante's visit to Oxford reduces itself to a single remark of Serravalle's in his fifth preamble:

"Modo, notandum, quod Dante dilexit hanc puellam Beatricem hystorice et litteraliter; sed allegorice et anagogice dilexit Theologiam sacram, in qua diu studuit tam in Oxoniis in regno Anglie, quam in Parisiis in regno Frantie, et fuit Bachallarius in Universitate Parisiensi, in qua legit Sententias pro forma Magisterii. Legit Bibliam, respondit omnibus Doctoribus, ut moris est, et fecit omnes actus, qui fieri debent per doctorandum in Sacra Theologia. Nihil restabat fieri, nisi inceptio, seu conventus; et ad incipiendum, seu faciendum conventum, deerat sibi pecunia: pro qua acquirenda rediit Florentiam. Optimus artista, perfectus theologus, erat nobilis prosapia, prudens in sensu naturali; propter que, factus fuit Prior in palatio populi Florentini, et sic cepit sequi officia palatii et neglexit studium, nec rediit Parisios."

This passage, it should be noted, occurs in a commentary written in hot haste in 1416—one hundred and twenty-five years after Dante is said to have studied at Oxford—at the request of two English prelates, one of whom had just been Chancellor of the University of Oxford, by an urbane and obliging Churchman, who had himself been the recipient of English courtesies (p. 259), and whose account of Dante's life is in other respects inexact, both in substance and in form. Under these circumstances, how much weight can we attach to this casual mention of Dante's visit to Oxford?

A Diary of the Salisbury Parliament, 1886–1890. By Henry W. Lucy. Illustrated by Harry Furniss. Cassell & Co. 1892.

THE unusual charm of Mr. Lucy's two former volumes, 'The Diary of Two Parliaments,' gave a corresponding interest to the announcement of this new one. The first impression produced by it is that the writer has grown older, and, with the lapse of years, has lost something of the elasticity which could mingle exuberant fun with serious narration. The volume is tinged with the sort of regret with which one looks back to bygone days, dwelling

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upon the changes that have taken place and the faces that have gone—Mr. Disraeli and John Bright, Mr. Bradlaugh and Major O'Gorman. In fact, a considerable part consists of obituaries. But out of all the wrecks of time still stands forth, furnishing, besides all else, full inspiration to Mr. Lucy's pen, the figure of the marvellous old man who, while nearing eighty-four years, can still, with undiminished energy and power of voice, hold the House of Commons for two hours and a quarter in an exposition of the Home-Rule Bill, extorting admiration almost equally from friends and foes. Mr. Lucy's power of description, however, remains undiminished, whether exercised in praise, as of Lord Granville, in chaffing, as of Mr. Goschen, or in fierce sarcasm, as against the Duke of Argyll. One can well believe that the author of 'Toby in Parliament,' as reported in *Punch*, is treated with consideration even by the higher dignitaries, in view of the public portraiture to which they may be subjected by his graphic pen.

It is a wonderful picture of the inner life of that assemblage, which, combining its actual condition with its past history, may be called the most remarkable public body that ever existed. What would not be the value of a similar account from 1750 through the struggle with France and our war of Independence, from the outbreak of the French Revolution to the overthrow of Napoleon; or again from the agitation of the first Reform Bill to the repeal of the Corn Laws and the establishment of free trade! What a nursery of men that House of Commons has been! Generation after generation has produced its fruit, more or less eminent, no doubt, but standing forth in all the sharpness and strength of individual character. Take, for instance, Mr. Lucy's account of Mr. Balfour: first, "a fair-faced languid youth, too indolent to stand upright; with pleasant voice, polished manner, and picturesque appearance"; next, as Chief Secretary for Ireland, developing into "a civil Cromwell, the most unbending thorough administrator of iron rule Ireland has known since '98"; again when, in the House of Commons, facing questions by the Irish members, he "stood at bay with his back to the wall parrying with light rapier the bludgeon blows rained upon him, now and then stepping forward and pinking an adversary with sharp, clear thrusts"; and then his comparative failure as leader of the House from the want of those conciliatory qualities which made of plain Mr. W. H. Smith, dealer in newspapers, the most successful leader since Lord Palmerston. It is at once as a training and a testing ground for individuals that the House of Commons has a large part of its value. Turning the view, almost in despair, towards our Congress, we yet cannot resist the conviction that, with a proper organization, our House of Representatives might surpass the House of Commons even in this respect.

Of the illustrations in the book it may be said, that while not wanting in force and skill, and possessing much merit as likenesses, they partake too much of caricature, and so fall below the dignity of the text. If we may exaggerate in both directions, it is like placing the cartoons of *Puck* in a collection of portraits by Vandyke and Velasquez.

Frederic Chopin. By Charles Willeby. Scribners. Pp. 316.

CHOPIN has been unfortunate in his biographers. Karasowski, although interesting, is incomplete; Liszt's book, though poetic and suggestive, is a rhapsody rather than a biography; Mr. Bennett's book is a mere compilation, while Niecks's two volumes, a monument of industry and extremely valuable for reference, are hardly adapted for consecutive reading, not to speak of the fact that his opinions are extremely erratic and untrustworthy. There was room, therefore, for another work, combining biography with criticism, and not too elaborate for the general reader, and this room Mr. Willeby has endeavored to occupy. He has not entirely succeeded. The biographic parts of the book are readable, even if they do not include much that is new, but the critical portions emphasize the fact that England is hardly the land in which to look for a just appreciation of Chopin's genius. As a rule it is the less inspired and more popular of his pieces that are lavishly praised here; while those whose originality and poetic individuality are most pronounced are dismissed as "morbid"—a word which seems to be a great favorite with people of robust nerves when they come across the gossamer emotions of an artist's dream-life. Even the Preludes, the most marvellous pieces ever written for piano, are described as "morbid." When the reader meets with the statement that the glorious C sharp minor nocturne — which is a perfect little music-drama in four pages—is "labored and sickly"; or the assertion that the middle movement of the B minor scherzo "is inexpressibly sweet for a few bars, but after that one experiences a sickly sensation"—whereas in truth it is the most heavenly melody ever written—one may resist the temptation to close Mr. Willeby's book and cast it into the fire, but one loses all confidence in him as a guide, and feels like advising him to stick to Handel, and Hummel, and Sir Arthur Sullivan, whose music is not "morbid" and "sickly," but has the true flavor of British roast-beef and plum-pudding, with no "made-dishes" nonsense about it. What a pity that the best a man of genius gives to the world should always be appreciated by only a select few!

Foil and Sabre: A Grammar of Fencing, in detailed lessons for professor and pupil. By Louis Rondelle, maître d'armes at the Boston Athletic Association and the Harvard University Fencing Club. Illustrated. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. 8vo, pp. xxiv, 218.

MR. RONDELLE'S book is offered as a guide in the systematic teaching of fencing according to the standard of the French Military School of Joinville-le-Pont, from which the author received his diploma. The very fact that he seeks to bring all practitioners of the art to the test of methods solidly established by experience precludes the idea of novelty in the elements. He seeks to commend himself rather by a faithful adherence to his standard, while he gives a series of systematically progressive lessons in which the pupil's knowledge and skill are steadily built up. Beginning with a clear analysis of the positions and movements in each of the simple parries and thrusts, the lessons pass on to various combinations of these, leading up to the most complicated. The knowledge gained at each step is kept in full exercise to the end, the later lessons involving the earlier ones with constantly new variations, until the pupil may be allowed to use his own judgment in combining the elements of attack and defence. The method is a sound one, and is well and clearly presented.

The French terms of art are rendered into English with a purpose not so much to translate exactly as to give terse and easily remembered and distinguished phrases and words that may be practically well adapted to use. It is no objection to these that they are sometimes imitations of the French rather than translations. The word and the thing are meant to be inseparably associated in the pupil's mind, and remarkably good judgment has been shown in adapting the whole to the uses of English-speaking men. The illustrations are reproduced photographs from living persons, and both in beauty and in interest have a great advantage over outline drawings and mere diagrams. The aim of the author to present a sound and trustworthy scheme of instruction in his art, and one that may fairly be accepted as a standard, has been satisfactorily accomplished. The publishers have coöperated with him in making the book a handsome one without and within.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Evelyn. Herodotus, Books V. and VI. Oxford. Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $2.75.
Alexander, Rev. William. Primary Convictions. Harpers. $2.50.
Argyll, Duke of. The Highland Nurse: A Tale. Tait, Sons & Co. 25 cents.
Benjamin, Park. The Voltaic Cell: Its Construction and its Capacity. John Wiley & Sons. $5.
Bernard, Charles de. Gerfaut: A Novel. Chicago: Laird & Lee. 50 cents.
Bourget, Paul. Cosmopolis. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Bryan, Clark W. Carriage Driving in Western Massachusetts. Springfield, Mass.: Clark W. Bryan & Co. $1.
Bryce, James. The American Commonwealth. Vol. I. 3d ed., completely revised throughout. Macmillan. $1.75.
Burnham, Lieut. W. P. Three Roads to a Commission in the U. S. Army. Appletons.
Capers, H. D. The Life and Times of C. G. Memminger. Charleston, S. C.: Isaac Hammond.
Chapman's Translation of the Iliad. 3 vols. [Knickerbocker Nuggets.] Putnams. $3.75.
Chittenden, L. E. Personal Reminiscences, 1840-1890. Richmond, Croscup & Co. $2.
Clifford, Mrs. W. K. A Wild Proxy. Cassell. $1.
Colles, Julia K. Authors and Writers Associated with Morristown. Morristown, N. J.: Vogt Bros.
Don Quixote: Ormsby's Translation Abridged and Edited for the Use of Schools. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Douglas, Rev. G. W. Sermons Preached in St. John's Church, Washington, D. C. Randolph. $1.50.
Fairbairn, Rev. A. M. The Place of Christ in Modern Theology. Scribners. $2.50.
Farjeon, B. L. Something Occurred. George Routledge & Sons.
Farrar, Rev. F. W. The First Book of Kings. [Expositor's Bible.] Armstrong. $1.50.
Fausset, Rev. W. Y. Ciceronis Orationes Cæsarianæ. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Ferrier, Miss. The Inheritance. 2 vols. Boston: Roberts Bros. $2.50.
Fields, Mrs. J. T. Whittier: Notes of his Life and of his Friendships. Harpers. 50 cents.
Florio's Montaigne. The Second Book. London: David Nutt.
Flower, B. O. Civilization's Inferno. Boston: *Arena Publishing Co.*
Gagneur, M. L. A Nihilist Princess. Brentanos. $1.
Gilman, N. P. Socialism and the American Spirit. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Hopkins, Prof. A. G. The Agricola and Germania of Tacitus. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. $1.
Hopkins, Prof. W. J. Telephone Lines and their Properties. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Hornung, E. W. Tiny Luttrell. Cassell. $1.
Howells, W. D. An Imperative Duty. Harpers. 50 cents.
Howells, W. D. The World of Chance. Harpers. $1.50.
Irving, Henry. The Drama. Tait, Sons & Co. $1.25.
James, H. The Real Thing, and Other Tales. Macmillan. $1.
Lake, Nancy. Daily Dinners: A Collection of 365 Distinct Menus in English and French. F. Warne & Co. $1.
Lang, A. Homer and the Epic. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.50.
Lecky, W. E. H. The Political Value of History. Appletons.
Leyton, Frank. The Shadows of the Lake. 4th ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Loney, S. L. Mechanics and Hydrostatics for Beginners. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Lorimer, Rev. G. C. What I Know about Books and How to Use Them. Boston: J. H. Earle. 75 cents.
Lyon, W. S. Bruno's Les Enfants Patriotes. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 25 cents.
Macdonald, Rev. James. Religion and Myth. London: David Nutt.
Mallett, C. E. The French Revolution. [University Extension Manuals.] Scribners. $1.
Manners and Rules of Good Society. 19th ed., entirely rewritten with additions. F. Warne & Co. $1.
Manual of Guard Duty, U. S. Army. Appletons.
Marlitt, E. The Old Mam'sell's Secret. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
McKim, Rev. R. H. Christ and Modern Unbelief. Whittaker. $1.
McMillan, W. F. Myra Mordaunt. 3d ed. Chicago: Morrill, Higgins & Co. 50 cents.
Miles, E. H. Comparative Syntax of Greek and Latin. Part I. Macmillan. $1.60.
Milne, W. J. Elements of Arithmetic. American Book Co. 30 cents.
Moore, E. N. P. Cicero de Oratore, Book I. Translated into English. London: Methuen & Co.
Musset, Alfred de. Barberine, and Other Comedies. Chicago: C. H. Sergel & Co. $1.25.
Musset, Alfred de. The Beauty Spot, and Other Stories. Chicago: C. H. Sergel & Co. $1.25.

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Oliphant, Mrs. The Victorian Age of English Literature. 2 vols. Tait, Sons & Co. $3.
Petiscus, A. H. The Gods of Olympos: or, Mythology of the Greeks and Romans. Cassell. $1.
Platt, Don. The Reverend Melancthon Pounder. Chicago: R. J. Belford.
Pictorial New York and Brooklyn. Smith, Bleakley & Co.
Pierce, E. L. Memoir and Letters of Charles Sumner. Vols. III. and IV. 1845-1874. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Proctor, R. A. Old and New Astronomy. With numerous plates and woodcuts. Longmans, Green & Co. $12.
Ross, Maj. J., of Bladensburg. The Marquess of Hastings. [Rulers of India.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.
Scott, Sir W. Waverley. 2 vols. Edited by Andrew Lang. [International Limited Edition.] Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $5.
Seawell, Miss M. E. Children of Destiny. Appletons.
Sherman, Prof. L. A. Analytics of Literature: A Manual for the Objective Study of English Prose and Poetry. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.40.
Sherwood, Mrs. Kate B. Dream of the Ages: A Poem of Columbia. Washington: The *National Tribune*.
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